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USSR Report

HUMAN RESOURCES

No. 75



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BULGAKOV OUTLINES VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAM

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 46, Nov 82 p 2

[Article by A. A. Bulgakov, chairman, USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education: "Cadres of Young Workers" under the heading: "Our Interviews". Text within slantlines appears in boldface type in the original.]

[Text] A. A. Bulgakov, chairman, USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education, answers the questions of EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA.

/Aleksandr Aleksandrovich, tell us about the development of vocational and technical education in the 11th Five-Year Plan!/'

The state system of vocational and technical education has become the principal base for the training of skilled cadres of workers for the economy and a school for expertise in work, as well as the education of the young generation of workers in communism. Every second worker in our country began his career in a vocational school. Without doubt, all this favors the growth of the authority exerted by vocational and technical educational institutions.

The training of young worker cadres for the various branches of the economy is carried on in the educational institutions of the vocational and technical educational system, as well as directly on the job.

One type of these educational institutions is the urban or rural secondary vocational and technical school, where young people receive vocational and secondary education in a three-year course. At these educational institutions, the basis for training young workers is the organic interrelationship of instruction and productive labor, that of instruction and education in communism and that of vocational training and general education.

The other type of educational institution that characterizes the contemporary aspect of the vocational and technical educational system is the technical school, in which young people with a secondary school education learn an industrial vocation requiring advanced qualifications.

Besides these schools, there are vocational and technical schools in the country with one to two-year courses.

In addition, a ramified system of evening (adult) vocational and technical schools is functioning as the most effective form of initial and additional training of industrial workers and of education to improve their qualifications.

In this Five-Year Plan, the number of skilled workers that graduate is planned to reach 13 million persons and the training of workers with secondary education is to grow to 1.6 times the previous number. The network of vocational and technical educational institutions is being developed and the schools are becoming more rationally located.

The professional and technical school trains 3.2 million workers for industry, 1.75 million for construction and 0.4 million for transportation. Our goal is the creation of a local vocational and technical educational institution at every new and major enterprise with a work force of 2,000 and more.

We are developing the vocational and technical education of young people in all the republics of the Soviet Union.

At present, 7,500 schools are training 3.8 million young men and women. It may be stated that there is no enterprise, organization, kolkhoz or sovkhoz now that has no graduate of a vocational and technical school among its workers. In this large number are outstanding specialists and capable party workers to give life to its plans.

/How are the basic tasks being fulfilled that originated in the resolutions of the May (1982) Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee with regard to vocational and technical education?/

An important position in the implementation of the resolutions of the May (1982) Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee is occupied by the further expansion of the vocational and technical school system and broader training of skilled workers for agriculture and branches of the agroindustrial complex. Measures are projected to carry out the state plan for construction in this Five-Year Plan of agricultural vocational and technical schools with 204,000 places for students. A secondary agricultural vocational and technical school is being created in every rayon where agricultural production is well developed. In the Five-Year Plan it will thus be possible to train for agriculture 3.5 million machine operators, livestock breeders, experts in land reclamation and other skilled workers, including 486,000 persons for rayons of Siberia and the Far East and more than 682,000 persons for the non-chernozem zone of the RSFSR.

It is planned that vocational and technical schools with 31,000 places for students will be built by the ministries and departments belonging to the agroindustrial complex.

Distribution of Full-Time Vocational and Technical Educational Institutions
By Type of School

Type of School	% of All Institutions
Secondary Vocational/Technical Schools	68
Technical Schools	21
1 to 2-Year Vocational/Technical Schools	11
Total	100

The basis of all efforts to bring to life the resolutions of the May (1982) Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee is the improved effectiveness of the educational process, i.e. the high quality of the training given skilled workers. Today, 80% of agricultural vocational and technical schools impart secondary education to their students along with a vocation. More than half the skilled workers being trained for agriculture are workers with a broad education or with capabilities in more than one occupation.

/What role is played in the implementation of the food program by the school training farms?/

There is a special place for the training farms of agricultural vocational and technical schools in the raising of the training level for skilled agricultural workers. Here the students acquire the practices of industrial technology as carried on in agricultural production. Altogether, 1,266 farms of this type exist, 1,034 of them within secondary schools. At the farms' disposal are 586,000 hectares of land and more than 100,000 head of cattle, swine and sheep. The training farms raise a considerable quantity of various agricultural products, a large part of which is given to the state and transferred to schools of culinary arts. In 1981, more than 2.2 million quintals of grain, 240,000 quintals of milk, over 71,000 quintals of meat as well as other agricultural products were obtained by the work of students during their practical training.

After the May (1982) Plenum of the CPSU Central Committee, the majority of agricultural vocational and technical schools accepted commitments to develop training farms and expand their production of agricultural commodities.

Each year, 1,981 agricultural vocational and technical schools with more than 920,000 students send into agricultural production over 700,000 skilled workers for almost 100 professions; 85% of them are machine operators.

As experience has shown, graduates fulfill and overfulfill production goals with high quality work, even in their first years of independent vocational life. Many of them have received high government awards, and 450 graduates of agricultural schools have been awarded the honorary title "Hero of Socialist Labor".

/What is being done to expand the vocational and technical school system in rural areas and consolidate the schools' material and technical base?/

The party's course toward accelerated technological progress demands that we devote special attention to raising the level of the theoretical and industrial instruction and of the ideopolitical education of young workers.

In this regard, much is being done. In recent years, the base of theoretical and industrial instruction has been substantially consolidated. Agricultural vocational and technical schools have been fitted with modern instructional equipment and the training process is assisted by electronics installations for programming and other technological instruction.

On the average, a machine and tractor station at such a school has 27 tractors, 11 automobiles, around 10 grain harvesters and special combines, around 50 land-reclamation units and over 35 various tractor-mounted agricultural machines. A school has modern Type K-700, T-150 and MTZ-82 energy-saturated tractors and "Kolos", "Niva" and "Sibiryak" combines.

However, some agricultural schools do not have the necessary storage facilities for equipment, laboratories, technological servicing stations, training grounds, dining halls, sports facilities or auditoriums; dormitory facilities are at 70% of requirements.

The USSR State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education, together with the USSR State Committee for Agricultural Technology, has issued special instructions to the Union republics concerning the distribution of necessary agricultural machinery to the vocational and technical schools. Measures are being taken to improve the safety of agricultural technology, intensification of efforts to train students to be careful with equipment and influencing vocational instructors to treat this important matter more seriously.

In order for a larger number of skilled workers to be trained and for a fundamental transfer to their acquiring secondary education to take place, it is primary that new vocational and technical agricultural schools be built and that the existing ones be expanded. However, capital construction of rural schools is proceeding at an unsatisfactory rate from year to year. Plans for building starts are only 60-80% fulfilled and those for opening up new sources of funding, only 65-75%.

/Among the letters to our editors, there are reports concerning the unfair use of vocational and technical graduates in industrial enterprises, construction organizations and kolkhozes or sovkhozes./

Unfortunately, vocational and technical graduates are not always employed in ways that build their careers, especially in the enterprises of the Ministry of Power Machine Building, the Ministry of Mineral Fertilizer Production, the Ministry of the Electrical Equipment Industry, the Ministry of Heavy and Transport Machine Building and the Ministry of the Food Industry of the USSR and in construction organizations.

One way to solve the problem of building graduates' careers is personnel planning. In this system, schools and the base enterprises establish in advance, before the students' on-the-job training, where and with what brigade each graduate will work and how he or she will be housed. This is a modern solution to the problems that frequently cause cadres to be unstable.

In all fairness, it must be said that there are enterprises where a fatherly attitude is taken toward young worker recruits. And the result is a new generation attuned to the rhythm of the enterprise, standing shoulder to shoulder with the older generation.

/A great historical event lies before us--the 60th anniversary of the founding of the USSR. How are vocational and technical educational institutions going to observe it?/

On the initiative of collectives at the vocational and technical institutions of Moscow and Leningrad and the oblasts of Moscow and Leningrad, an extensive socialist competition has begun in the vocational and technical educational system for worthy observance of the 60th anniversary of the founding of the USSR.

In all the schools, the new academic year began with Lenin's lesson "An indestructible union of free republics." Workers at the educational institutions are making efforts to instill in all students, by preparing them for the anniversary, feeling of pride in their great homeland and the conviction that socialism is right and invincible.

The education of the young worker as a worthy member of socialist society is the most important direction taken by the activity of the collectives at vocational and technical educational institutions. The CPSU Central Committee has given to the workers in the system of vocational and technical education the task of improving the ideopolitical education of students more and more. The education of a new person as a creative, spiritually rich and harmoniously developed individual is the goal of all the efforts of the vocational and technical educational agencies and of the schools.

High esteem for the activity of the vocational and technical school was expressed in the welcome spoken by Comrade L. I. Brezhnev to graduates of Leningrad schools who wished to study at the vocational and technical schools. "In the vocational and technical educational institutions," the welcoming speech was worded, "you will acquire a high level of vocational training and you will attain extensive political and general knowledge to meet the contemporary challenges of scientific, technological and social progress."

Such esteem inspires us, committing us to unqualified improvement of the level of work, above all, and to utilize all our resources, meanwhile decisively overcoming existing faults.

In welcoming the glorious anniversary, workers of the vocational and technical schools are making every effort toward the consistent and continual fulfillment of the outline of the 26th CPSU Congress and the resulting tasks of training and educating a young generation that will build communism.

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CSO: 1828/37

LABOR

LABOR OFFICIAL EXPLAINS LEGALITIES OF HOLDING TWO JOBS

Moscow KHOZYAYSTVO I PRAVO in Russian No 11, Nov 82 pp 78-81

/Article by V. Pavlov, sector head in the Wages Department of the USSR State Committee on Labor and Social Problems: "Some Issues Related to the Combining of Occupations and Jobs"7

/Text On 14 May 1982 the USSR State Committee on Labor and Social Problems, the USSR Ministry of Finances and the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions approved an Instruction on the application of the 4 December 1981 decree No 1145 of the USSR Council of Ministers "Concerning the Procedure and Conditions for the Combining of Occupations (Jobs)."1

The Instruction defines more precisely the following concepts: the combining of occupations (jobs), the expanding of the service zones, the increasing of the volume of work fulfilled and the fulfillment of the obligations of temporarily absent employees in addition to one's own basic work.

A general feature of all these work forms is the fact that they are all permitted at one and the same enterprise, institution or organization under the following conditions: the employee must agree, they must be practice during the legislatively established working day (working shift), they must be economically advisable, and they must not reduce the quality of the goods, work or services for the public.

Combining occupations or jobs refers to that form of work under which the employee performs--in addition to this own basic work and in accordance with a labor contract concluded with the administration--supplementary work in another occupation or position.

As a rule, the combining of jobs is permitted within the limits of the personnel category to which the given employee belongs. For example, electrician--electric welder, bookkeeper--accountant, production design engineer--rate setter, etc.

Expanding the service zones or increasing the volume of work fulfilled differs from the combining of occupations (jobs) in that the additional volume of work is fulfilled not within a different occupation or position, but within the limits of the same trade (for blue collar workers) or the

position (for engineering and technical employees, other specialists, office employees and other junior service personnel). For example, a machine tool fitter (a blue-collar worker) also services machine tools, fulfilling an additional third or even one half of the norm for the servicing of machine tools. This is combining work, but it is carried out within the limits of one working trade, that of the fitter. For this reason it is not called "combining trades," but rather "expanding the zone of service." In addition to serving the employees assigned to him, a bookkeeper may earn a wage supplement by keeping the accounts of the material valuables in his position as a bookkeeper. In this case, combining the work of two positions which carry the same name is referred to as "increasing the volume of work fulfilled."

Inasmuch as the standardized procedures and conditions have been established for the combining of trades (jobs), the expanding of service zones or increasing the volume of work completed, we shall agree to understand that in the future all of these forms of work with a lesser number of personnel are understood when the expression combining occupations (jobs) is mentioned.

By fulfilling the obligations of a temporarily absent employee without being released from one's own work is meant the replacement of an employee who is absent as a result of illness, vacation, a business trip or for other reasons, when his job or position is being kept for him in accordance with existing legislation.

Fulfilling the obligations of a temporarily absent employee is, in essence, also the combining of occupations (positions) in the usual understanding of those words; however, there are certain differences. This practice occurs not because of a vacant working slot or position, but because there is a need to replace a temporarily absent employee as a result of the latter's vacation, illness, etc.

Using this form of work may not result in a savings in the wage fund because, as a rule, the average wage paid out of the wage fund is maintained for the temporarily absent employee. Exceptions occur with cases of illness, pregnancy and maternity leave and certain other circumstances under which the average wage is paid from the social insurance resources. For this reason the source of additional payments for the fulfillment of the obligations of temporarily absent employees lies in the general wage fund, and not in savings made in it, as is the case with the usual job combining process.

Additional payments to workers who are fulfilling the obligations of temporarily absent employees in addition to their own work are established in an amount up to 50 percent of the wage rate for the basic work at all the enterprises, institutions and organizations in both the production and non-production sectors where these additional payments are permitted. And they are permitted only for blue-collar workers and for junior office personnel engaged in the production sectors of the national economy, as well as at enterprises in commerce, public catering, public utilities, at material-technical supply facilities and in other sectors

(on the basis of individual decisions of the USSR government). These additional payments are not made to other categories of employees (engineering and technical employees, other white-collar employees).

No more than 50 percent of the wage rate for the absent employee may be spent on the additional payments (this contrasts with the figures of up to 100 or 70 percent of the wage fund savings, which is the case with the usual combining of jobs, which is the result of the release of a number of personnel due to this combining practice). The size of the additional payment does not depend on the number of persons among whom the work of the temporarily absent employee is distributed.

The Instruction stipulates the conditions for the combining of the positions of employees in the management apparatus of the enterprise or organization). It notes that combining jobs is possible only within the limits of the number of personnel in this category and the maximum appropriations for their maintenance which have been approved by the higher organization.

The decree establishes several differences in the procedure and conditions for the combining of jobs for employees in the enterprises of production and non-production sectors of the national economy. Differences exist 1) in the procedure for approving the lists of the job combining options of employees for whom the additional payments can be established for holding two jobs, 2) in the approach to the use of the wage fund savings obtained from reducing personnel strength and which is directed toward the establishment of additional payments and 3) in the size of the additional payments for the fulfillment of the additional volume of work and in other factors.

The Instruction specifies that for the purposes of applying the procedure and conditions for the combining of jobs the production sectors of the national economy include enterprises and organizations in industry, agriculture, water and forest resource management, the USSR State Committee on Agricultural Equipment, transportation (including municipal electrical transport), communications, construction, geological prospecting, forestry, the hydrometeorological service, as well as elevators, grain reception points and bases.

The remaining enterprises, institutions and organizations belong to the category of non-production sectors of the national economy (for example, commercial and material-technical supply enterprises and organizations and educational, health care and cultural institutions).

Enterprises in production sectors often include subdivisions of enterprises in the non-production sectors of the national economy. Employees of these subdivisions (for example, public health centers) are to follow the procedure and conditions for job combination as stipulated for employees of non-production sectors enterprises. The lists of employees employed in them for whom additional payments may be established for job combination must be approved in a centralized manner (by the ministry, or agency with agreement from the appropriate central committee of the trade union).

The size of the additional payments must not exceed the sizes established for employees in non-production enterprises, while the payments themselves are possible only under the condition that there is a reduction in personnel strength against definite sector-wide or inter-sectorial norms for personnel strength, or counter to service norms or staff norms approved on the basis of typical staffing levels, or counter to other norms or standards for labor expenditures approved by higher organizations.

If, however, the subdivisions of production sector enterprises are part of non-production sector enterprises, the job combination is carried out through a procedure and upon conditions which are established for employees in enterprises of the non-production sectors of the national economy.

A job-combining agreement is officially registered by an order of the administration with the approval of the trade union committee. It must indicate the trade or position being combined, the volume of additional work to be carried out and the size of the additional payments to be made for it (in percentages or rubles with relation to the wage or salary rates). A cancellation or reduction in the indicated additional payments is registered in the same manner.

An employee must be given at least a month's warning of any change in the conditions of his job combination arrangement or of any reduction or cancellation of the additional payments. Only if the quality of the goods or services falls, can the job combination arrangement and the payments for it be halted, beginning as soon as the drop in quality is discovered.

The duties of the employee who is released as a result of job combination may be imposed on one person or can be distributed among several employees for the purpose of ensuring complete and high-quality fulfillment of the work in both the basic as well as the combined trade or position.

At the same time one employee can combine work of more than one trade or position. In these cases the total of the additional payments for this cannot exceed the maximum permissible amounts established by the 4 December 1981 decree No 1145 of the USSR Council of Ministers: for blue-collar workers and junior office personnel in production sector enterprises, as well as for blue-collar workers engaged in loading and unloading work, regardless of the sector of the national economy, up to 50 percent of the wage rate, and for all the remaining categories of employees for whom additional payments for job combination are permitted, including blue-collar workers and junior office personnel employed in non-production sectors--no more than 30 percent of the wage rate.²

The procedure calls for exceptions to be made for those motor vehicle drivers who were previously receiving additional payments for one-time combination of the docker and shipping clerk duties (for example, in the delivery of grain and bakery products) amounting to more than 50 percent of their own wage rate; the previously established magnitude of the additional payments may be preserved for the period of time in which they work in both these jobs, including fulfilling the functions of a forwarding agent, at the discretion

of the director of the motor vehicle transport enterprise, and in coordination with the trade union committee.

If an employee receives a supplement for having a high level of vocational or professional skill, then the additional payments for combining jobs are assigned to him in addition to these supplements. The level of these payments is specified as a percentage of the wage rate without taking into account the supplements for vocational skill or personal supplements.

When blue-collar workers in production brigades combine jobs, the balance in the savings of the wage fund which is obtained as a result of releasing workers and which is not fully utilized for the additional payments made to those holding two jobs, can be distributed among the members of the brigade in accordance with the method adopted by the brigade for the distribution of the collective earnings. As a rule, these earnings are distributed on the basis of the labor participation coefficient (LPC).

Due to the individual qualities and capabilities of a person, job combination is by no means accessible to every employee. For this reason, when an employee who is receiving additional payments for job combination is released, the employee who is appointed to his position may receive the previously established level of payments based on the type of job combining being practiced only if he is given all the duties of the worker who has been let go.

The size of the additional payments for job combining is determined as a percentage of the hourly, daily or monthly wage rate for blue-collar workers or of the salary scales for engineering and technical employees and of other specialists and white-collar personnel, including junior office personnel.

However, frequently the additional earnings to which an employee is entitled must be calculated for a portion rather than all of an entire pay period, that is, they must be calculated only for the period actually worked.

In these cases the additional payment for job combination is calculated in the following manner.

Employees whose labor is paid according to the monthly wage or salary rates, and who have worked an incomplete month have their additional payment calculated as a percentage of the monthly wage or salary rate for the basic work in proportion to the time worked.

Example: A bookkeeper with a monthly salary rate of 100 rubles combines jobs, performing in addition to his own work, the duties of an accountant, for which he receives an additional payment amounting to 30 percent of the salary rate (30 rubles per month). In May he went on vacation, having worked 12 days out of 20 (based on a five-day work week). For this reason the bookkeeper's earnings for the time actually worked in May (excluding vacation time) amounts to 78 rubles ($\frac{100 \times 12}{20} = 60$ rubles)-- the wages for

his own position for 12 working days plus $\frac{60 \times 30}{100} = 18$ rubles--additional payment for job combining (as a percentage of the salary).

For blue-collar workers who are paid on the basis of hourly wage rates, additional payments for job combining are calculated on the earnings based on the actual time worked during the given month and remunerated at these rates. This time can be either more or less than the monthly norm.

Example: (A motor vehicle driver (with an hourly wage rate of 71.5 kopecks) is supposed to work 164 hours according to the schedule, but actually works 171 hours. For combining the jobs of loader and the position of forwarding agent an additional payment amounting to 50 percent of his wage rate is established. His monthly wages in this case amount to 183.39 rubles ($0.715 \times 171 + 122.26 \times 50$)).

100

Additional payments for combining jobs, including those for fulfilling the duties of a temporarily absent employee are included in the average earnings in all cases for which this figure is calculated, that is, for payments for vacation time, for temporary inability to work, for the calculation of pensions and in other cases.

For employees who work under harmful labor conditions and who combine jobs, while continuing to fulfill their own duties completely, the benefits which they receive under the existing legislation due to their working conditions (additional vacation time, a reduced working day, free milk and a special, prophylactic diet) are retained, regardless of whether these benefits are established on the basis of the combined jobs.

Employees who would not receive these benefits on the basis of their own job, but would receive them on the basis of their second job, will receive these benefits only for those days which they actually work no less than half the working day at the second job. Moreover, the length of the additional vacation time which they receive is calculated as a proportion of the time actually worked under conditions which provide the right to this vacation time, based on the following. When the additional vacation time is six working days a month on the second job under the above indicated conditions, 0.5 days of additional leave is granted. When the amount of additional leave is 12 working days, one day is granted for every month of work in the second job.

The existing normative acts specify conditions which are definitely linked to the number of employees as being the determining factor in whether there are wage payments to employees or the establishment of any given structural subdivisions of an enterprise. For example, the establishment of brigades and the amount of additional payments given to brigade leaders chosen from among the blue-collar workers who were not released from their own work, has been established in relation to the number of brigade members. And the amounts of bonuses given to victors in socialist competition depend on the numerical strength of the collectives.

In order to prevent changes in the conditions for labor remuneration, the Instruction specifies that a reduction in the numerical employee strength as a result of combining jobs may not serve as the basis for: the introduction of changes in the staff schedules or the imposition of

limits on the numerical strength; the abolition of subdivisions of the enterprises for which the presence of a specific number of employees was a condition of their establishment; the reduction or elimination of additional payments to brigade leaders for directing the brigades; for the reduction in the size of bonuses paid to collectives who are winners in socialist competition, and for changes in groups of enterprises (shops and sectors) on the basis of labor payments for management and engineering-technical employees and in other similar cases.

At those enterprises where the Shchekino method is being used as part of a set of measures to improve the organization and motivation of labor and stimulate better planning in accordance with the Procedure No 67-VL³ of 11 April 1978, which was approved by the USSR State Committee on Labor and Social Problems, USSR Gosplan and the USSR Ministry of Finances, as well as the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions, the additional incentive measures stipulated by this document remain in force. They include: the opportunity to increase workers' bonuses to a maximum of 60 percent of the piecework earnings or wage rates for work on the basis of technically grounded norms calculated according to intra- and inter-sectorial standards for personnel strength and according to other progressive norms for labor expenditures (as approved by higher organizations); an increase of up to 25 percent of the total of awards paid to worker-inventors and rationalizers for the first year in which their suggestions, which are mainly aimed at reducing labor intensity in the manufacture of goods, are utilized; and the opportunity to establish additional payments for workers in repair services amounting to 10-20 percent of the wage rate.

FOOTNOTES

1. "SP SSSR," Law of the USSR, 1982, No 2, Article 7.
2. The 24 May 1982 decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers "Concerning Measures to Increase the Material Incentives for Agricultural Workers to Increase the Quantity and Quality of Output" stipulates the maximum size of additional payments for combining jobs and fulfilling the established volume of work with a reduced number of employees: for blue-collar workers they can be up to 70 percent of the wage rate, and for engineering-technical and other white-collar workers they can be up to 50 percent of salary ("SP SSSR"), 1982, No 17 Article 91.
3. SOTSIALISTICHESKIY TRUD, 1978, No 7, pp 9-11.

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CSO: 1828/35

LABOR

IMPACT OF MECHANIZATION, AUTOMATION ON LABOR ASSESSED

Moscow SOTSIALISTICHESKIY TRUD in Russian No 11, Nov 82 pp 22-27

[Article by Candidates of Economic Sciences N. Lobanov and S. Kurysheva: "The Impact of Mechanization and Automation on the Conditions and Content of Labor"]

[Text] In the stage of mature socialism, there is a stronger link between the problems of increasing the efficiency of social labor and changes in the production conditions, and both these processes are most actively influenced by production mechanization and automation.

The development of production mechanization and automation provides not only high growth rates for the production volume due to the utilizing of more advanced implements of labor, but also contributes to the easing of labor, making it at the same time more productive and meaningful, it changes the stress in labor and widens the sphere of employing skilled creative labor. Progressive production methods substantially improve labor conditions and reduce the share of working time expenditures on preparatory-concluding operations, in the technical servicing of the work area and also various organizational and technical needs. At the same time the labor conditions themselves actively influence the efficient use of equipment, material and labor resources.

The change in working conditions under the impact of mechanization and automation is naturally not devoid of certain contradictions which reflect the present stage of the scientific and technical revolution. In the first place, there are different levels of mechanization, automation and working conditions in the national economic sectors and the individual regions of the nation. Secondly, there is an uneven pace in the development of scientific and technical progress and this intensifies the intersectorial differences in the levels of industrial equipping and working conditions. As a consequence of this, discrepancies are virtually inevitable between the rate and existing level of scientific and technical development, on the one hand, and the socioeconomic changes, on the other. These are manifested with particular acuteness in those instances when the mechanization and automation of labor and production are not carried out comprehensively. Precisely because of this, with an increased share of mechanized work during the 1965-1975 period, there was an increase of 563,000 workers performing labor functions without the use of mechanization. In individual sectors, this trend has remained at present. With a large number of vacant jobs in manual labor, their reduction at individual enterprises and in regions has not led to an absolute increase in the number of

workers in this category. The workers move from one enterprise to another or within the enterprise from one section to another. As a result, the total number of persons employed in manual labor has dropped very slowly and in regions which have lagged behind in converting to the intensive path of production development, it has even continued to grow.

It must also be pointed out that, in reducing the sphere of manual labor as a whole in material production and in lowering the degree of physical stress on a worker in a specific labor process, incomplete production mechanization and automation in a number of instances can impoverish the content of labor and increase the nervous and mental stress. It also happens that the demands on a worker's professional level are reduced, areas of simple monotonous labor appear and on the social level this cannot satisfy people.

The overcoming of this and other designated contradictions should be constantly in view in controlling scientific and technical development. It should be aimed at steadily eliminating the arising negative consequences of the uneven or one-sided development of equipment and production methods and at establishing precisely those production areas where these have occurred or are possible.

What this means in practical terms can be seen from the example of the development and use of automatic manipulators (robots). In accord with the Decree of the CPSU Central Committee "On Measures to Increase Production and Widely Use Automatic Manipulators in the National Economic Sectors in Light of the Instructions of the 25th CPSU Congress," at present a comprehensive program has been worked out for scientific research and design in the area of developing and introducing automatic manipulators in 1981-1990. This decree has outlined the general strategy for the planned equipping of the national economic sectors with automatic manipulators and for steadily converting to fully automated production. Starting in 1981, the draft state USSR economic and social development plans envisaged the creation of ministries for producing and introducing automatic manipulators. Considering that their role will grow in organizing industrial production and in the planned rise in the level of its mechanization and automation, it would be advisable, in our opinion, in the periodic surveys conducted by the USSR TsSU [Central Statistical Administration], to envisage a system of indicators from which it would be possible to judge the efficient use of automatic manipulators in production and to carry out the necessary analytical work.

The experience studied by us of utilizing automatic manipulators in the various national economic sectors shows their high economic and social effectiveness. For example, at the Petrodvorets Watch Plant Associations, the use of 200 industrial robots which assembled the mechanisms for 4 million timepieces made it possible to release 300 persons from monotonous labor. If the increase in timepiece production had been provided by the former equipment, then the conveyor assembly shop would have needed an additional 500 persons. Industrial robots are also being successfully employed in assembling tractors of the Kirovets series at the Kirov Plant Production Association, at the Volga and Kama Motor Vehicle Plants and at other enterprises. There is also interesting experience in the use of robots on the Ruch'i Sovkhoz of Leningrad Oblast in processing vegetables. Particularly high efficiency is achieved in ganging the automatic manipulators into robotic complexes.

Characteristically, industrial robots are being designed primarily for areas where heavy manual or monotonous labor is employed and where the health and hygiene conditions for labor activity are particularly bad. Calculations show that even in the current decade, one can speak about the replacing of 1 million workers and a savings on the order of 3 billion rubles. However, for this the total output of automatic manipulators must rise to 350,000-400,000. For comparison, let us recall that in 1980 the nation had around 6,000 robots.

As a whole, the scale of work in the area of full production mechanization and automation can be judged from the following data. In 1965-1979, in the basic sectors of Soviet industry, the average annual increase rates for the number of fully mechanized and automated enterprises was 6-16 percent, for sections and shops 5-14, for mechanized assembly lines 6-13 and for automatic lines 5-17 percent. Over the designated period, the number of mechanized assembly lines rose by 2.9-fold, automatic lines by 3.4-fold, fully mechanized and automatic sections, shops and production lines by 3.3-fold and enterprises by 3.1-fold. This could not help but tell on a change in the degree of involving workers in mechanized production and on reducing the proportional amount of workers engaged in manual labor (from 40.4 percent in 1965 down to 32.2 percent in 1979). This has been due not only to the quantitative rise in mechanization and automation but also to the higher quality characteristics of the new equipment. The share of fully automated and mechanized lines has increased along with the amount of equipment per line, the number of machine tools with program control and so forth.

But still the main task which must be solved is to achieve integration in the mechanization and automation processes in all industrial sectors and primarily in machine building and metalworking. It is important that the pace of full mechanization and automation in these sectors significantly outstrip the average growth rates for industry as a whole. At the same time, the required ratios have not always been fully maintained. Thus, in the industry of Leningrad and the oblast in 1979, in the total structure of expenditures on technical progress, more than one-third went to increase the level of production mechanization and automation. Here the greatest expenditures were in the machine building and metalworking sectors. Approximately the same structure was characteristic also for the previous years of the Tenth Five-Year Plan. At the same time, at present there are more fully mechanized and automated enterprises in the light, food and printing industries. This is explained by the fact that technical progress in machine building and metalworking is basically aimed at mechanizing and automating individual production units and production sectors and as yet does not have a comprehensive nature. With such technical development, the shortage of machine tool operators will remain for a long time to come (a portion of the workers in this category will endeavor to change profession). With partial and incomplete production mechanization and automation, little will change in the working conditions of the workers while the economic and social effect from introducing the individual elements of mechanization and automation will be lost in the lagging sectors.

The experience of the leading Leningrad collectives (the Svetlana Association, the Optical Equipment Association imeni V. I. Lenin, Elektrosila, Znamya Truda [Labor Banner] and others) convincingly shows that a substantial economic effect is achieved where in compiling the plans for raising the technical level

of production, attention is focused on comprehensively carrying out measures to introduce qualitatively new, highly efficient means and methods of production and they do not limit themselves to creating "islands" of automated sections.

For determining the changes in the working conditions under the impact of mechanization and automation, it is important to combine the methods of statistical economic analysis and sociological research, for the use of them individually can lead to one-sided judgments. A majority of sociological research, in our view, suffers from empiricism and, as a rule, has a local nature and does not provide any notion of the dynamics of this process. Naturally this reduces the profundity of the analysis.

The statistical materials on the change in working conditions under the impact of the mechanization and automation of labor, as obtained from the results of a one-shot calculation by the enterprises of the number of workers by professions, rate categories, forms and systems of wages provide a broader picture. But this research is carried out by the state statistical bodies three times every 10 years. Here the labor conditions are divided into: normal, heavy, harmful, particularly heavy and particularly harmful. Data on the distribution of the number of workers for these groups combined with the rate category and the form of wages provide a notion of the working conditions for the enterprises, sectors and regions of the nation and make it possible, to a certain degree, to analyze worker distribution by categories in line with the various working conditions and wage forms. Such information taken for a number of years, for example, for 1969-1979, provides an opportunity to analyze the change in worker skills and the spread of various wage forms under different working conditions.

The classification adopted in statistical accounting for working conditions reflects the sanitary and hygiene factors of the environment and these are regulated by the corresponding standards (dustiness, pollution of the air, the concentration of impurities in it, temperature, humidity, noise level, vibration and so forth). These make it possible to classify the range of specific working conditions as normal, harmful, heavy, particularly harmful and particularly heavy. Simultaneously, according to the statistical data on the number of workers, it is possible to obtain a grouping of workers and students depending upon the equipment to be used. Within the definite groups of professions, in accord with the classification adopted by the USSR TsSU, five groups of workers are established and they perform the following jobs: observing automatic equipment, with the aid of machines and mechanisms, manual with machines and mechanisms, manual without machines and mechanisms, and manual for adjusting and repairing machines and mechanisms. On the basis of this classification, the degree of worker coverage by mechanized and manual labor is determined. In knowing for an enterprise the share of manual (mechanized) labor and the degree of harmful and heavy working conditions, in employing the methods of groupings, dispersion and correlation analysis, it is possible to trace the dependence of a change in working conditions under the impact of the wider involvement of the workers in mechanized production.

Calculations make it possible to study in greater detail the structure of persons employed in jobs with harmful working conditions. While in 1969, eight types of jobs (including "Other") were established in the reports of the

machine building and metalworking enterprises, in 1979 the figure was 15. As a result, the proportional amount of the "Other Work" group declined from 75 percent to 50 percent of the total number of workers employed in jobs with harmful working conditions. Of course, this broadens the framework of analysis into the structure of jobs involving harmful working conditions and makes it possible more specifically to trace the changes in the structure of the jobs under the impact of the mechanization and automation of labor and production.

In studying the effectiveness of measures aimed at reducing the monotony of labor, lowering fatigue, and eliminating the influence of machinery and equipment vibration on the state of worker health, statistical data are also employed on the number of workers and students engaged in labor where the working conditions differ from the normal. Among these are persons employed on conveyors and assembly lines with a fixed pace, in jobs involving vibrating tools and equipment. The operating conditions of an enterprise can also serve as an indirect characteristic of working conditions, that is, information on worker distribution over the shifts and the shift conditions combined with the level of worker coverage in mechanized labor.

Thus, there is a rather broad system of indicators obtained in the one-shot statistical studies of the enterprises. Additional information on working conditions can also be obtained from the data of sampling surveys.

The first such survey was undertaken by the USSR TsSU in June 1980. Here they established the total number of workers engaged in heavy physical labor and in jobs with working conditions which deviated from the sanitary standards (for the same groups of professions as in the calculating of workers by rate categories, forms and systems of wages). Four categories were set for the conditions of this labor: I--when industrial dust exceeds the maximum tolerable concentration (State Standard 12.1.005-76); II--when the chemical content in the air exceeds the maximum tolerable concentration (State Standard 12.1.005-76); III--when industrial noise exceeds the maximum tolerable level (State Standard 12.1.003-76); IV-- when the air temperature in the room during the warm season is +28° and higher. For each category, the number of women was determined and this, combined with the code for the profession in terms of the degree of labor mechanization, provided information on the differentiation of the distribution of heavy physical labor as well as labor with injurious conditions with a varying degree of its mechanization for persons of both sexes. The group of workers engaged in monotonous labor was isolated particularly. As a whole, the program for such a survey makes it possible to thoroughly study the sanitary and hygiene working conditions at an enterprise depending upon the degree of labor mechanization.

In combining the information of the two above-mentioned statistical reports with an interval of one year for enterprises which fell into the sampling, it is possible not only to see the changes in the structure of working conditions, in particular in the ratio of normal, heavy and harmful working conditions, but also to interpret these data considering the distribution of physical labor among the workers of various professions. Such analysis makes it possible to gain a notion of the impact of the mechanization and automation processes on the sanitary and hygiene working conditions as well as on the distribution of

heavy physical labor. In using its data and in relying on sociological research, on a scale of the sectors and the regions it is possible to work out measures to reduce dustiness, the polluting of the air with harmful impurities, the level of production noise, to improve temperature conditions and so forth.

At the same time, it is essential to point out that the analysis was made using consolidated groups of professions. At the same time, even among persons of the same profession, working conditions are very differentiated. This is why the results of the designated periodic surveys should without fail be supplemented by a census of manual work (their inventorying or classification). Such information, in our view, is essential for working out specific measures related to the planned reduction of manual labor and primarily heavy physical labor.

The materials of the periodic surveys are important for use in analytical work on studying changes in the conditions and content of labor. An analysis of the dynamics in the change of worker skills with different working conditions for a number of machine building enterprises in Leningrad has shown that in 1969-1979, there was a clear tendency for a rise in worker skills: the average rate category in 1969 was 3.34, in 1975 it was 3.56 and in 1979 3.65. (For comparison, let us recall that the national average rate category for machine building workers in 1979 was 3.3.) The share of workers engaged in mechanized labor over this same period was, respectively, 42.6, 46.2 and 47.7 percent. Thus, the increased mechanization of labor and production has been accompanied by an increased skill level of the workers. This trend is characteristic both for the workers engaged in jobs with normal working conditions as well as those with harmful and heavy ones. Here, the average rate category for workers with normal working conditions over the decade rose by 0.35 of a category and for those engaged in harmful and heavy conditions, 0.16.

The variabilities calculated for us for the rate category in terms of workers with different conditions shows a more uniform skill structure for workers engaged in harmful and heavy working conditions (and the degree of this uniformity over the period from 1969 through 1979 increased in the basic machine building sectors). At the same time, for workers engaged in labor with normal conditions, there was a characteristic more diverse skill structure. However, with the growth of production mechanization, within this worker group there was an evening out of the skilled structure. Thus, while in 1969, the variabilities for the individual machine building sectors were within the limits of 32-48 percent, in 1975, 32-45 percent, in 1979 it was 33-38 percent. Characteristically, the greater uniformity of worker skill composition was achieved on the basis of increasing the proportional amount of the higher skilled workers.

According to the data of the same sampling of Leningrad machine building enterprises, it is possible to trace the impact of mechanization and automation processes on the change in working conditions (see the table on following page).

From the data in the table it can be seen that as the level of labor mechanization rises one can trace a certain decline in the share of persons engaged in jobs with harmful and heavy working conditions. However, the positive effect of the mechanization and automation of labor and production here is still not

Level of labor mechanization, %	Number of enterprises, % of total	Share of workers engaged in jobs with heavy and harmful working conditions, %
To 25	21.6	33.8
25-50	47.1	27.7
50-75	31.3	21.6
Total	100	27.1

great (the correlation indices of 0.22-0.25). We also did not succeed in establishing a clear link between the decline in the share of persons engaged in jobs with heavy and harmful working conditions and the mechanization level at enterprises of one subsector or one size. This again confirms the need to increase the efficiency of the new introduced equipment which makes it possible to more sharply reduce the share of persons employed in jobs with harmful and heavy working conditions and to pay more attention to the production of mechanization and automation for auxiliary jobs, including loading, transport and warehouse jobs. For the analyzed enterprises, the average annual increase in the level of labor mechanization over the period from 1969 through 1979 in the auxiliary shops was 53 percent of the level in the basic shops. In strengthening control over the technical equipping of the work areas, and over the real reduction in the number of persons employed in jobs that are harmful and heavy in terms of working conditions, particular attention should be paid to sections where female labor is widely employed. Analysis has shown that female labor at the machine building plants is more widely employed at enterprises with a high level of production mechanization and automation, but here often the women are concentrated in auxiliary jobs. Such a situation cannot help but tell on their working conditions and on the skill level. For this reason, in the comprehensive plans for improving working conditions and labor safety as well as in the enterprise social development plans, it is important to pay more attention to these sections, to provide the necessary measures and strictly supervise their fulfillment.

The materials of the 1979 one-shot survey also make it possible to assess the structure of the various types of benefits granted to workers for working in production with harmful conditions. Harmful working conditions receive a compensation of approximately 85 percent in additional leave, increased wage rates and free food (predominantly milk) while a shortened workday and preferential pension are more rarely used. The structure of benefits is little differentiated in terms of the individual machine building subsectors.

In keeping with the further developments of scientific and technical progress, this classification of benefits, in our view, should be altered and made more concrete depending upon the intensity of labor, upon the working conditions at certain jobs, upon the particular features of the sectors and subsectors.

Then information on working conditions and the type of compensation for the heaviness and harmfulness of labor will be aimed at reducing the number of persons employed in heavy and harmful jobs. Where bad working conditions will survive, it is advisable to broaden the list of such types of benefits, for example, trips to sanatoria, preventoria, vacation homes and so forth. A greater differentiation depending upon working conditions is also needed for individual professions.

According to the program of the examined one-shot study in machine building, among persons employed on conveyor lines, for example, the following vocational groups were established: mechanics in mechanical assembly work, assemblers, machine tool operators and so forth. The results of this study showed that the profession of a machine tool operator is not widespread in conveyor production. Their number was just 2 percent of all the persons employed on conveyors. But a breakdown of the group "Other Specialties" is desirable for at individual enterprises it was over 60 percent.

An analysis of changes in working conditions related to the development of mechanization and automation processes at machine building plants, using the materials of one-shot surveys conducted in 1969, 1975 and 1979 as well as the results of sociological research, make it possible to draw the following conclusions. In the first place, over this entire period there was an intense process of full production mechanization and automation and, correspondingly, more and more workers became involved in mechanized production and the share of those engaged in manual labor declined. Secondly, the increased mechanization of production as a whole was accompanied by increased worker skills both for those employed with normal working conditions and with heavy and harmful conditions. But with the uneven and incomplete introduction of scientific and technical achievements, an increased level of mechanization did not always lead to a decline in the number of persons employed in jobs with heavy and harmful conditions. Thirdly, more than one-half of the total number of workers employed in production is employed under harmful and heavy conditions at individual enterprises. The measures to steadily reduce jobs with heavy and harmful working conditions should be worked out primarily for these enterprises. Fourthly, it is essential to increase the efficiency of introduced equipment in order to more sharply reduce the number of persons employed in jobs with harmful and heavy working conditions, particularly in auxiliary production. Finally, it is advisable to broaden the information opportunities of statistical reporting for studying the job structure involving harmful working conditions and the skill structure of workers engaged in this labor; we must periodically conduct a census of manual jobs as well as selective specialized sociological studies.

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LABOR

CHANGES IN MARITIME WORKERS' WAGE RATES REVEALED

Moscow RYBNOYE KHOZYAYSTVO in Russian No 11, Nov 82 pp 28-30

[Article by A. V. Katayev of the USSR Ministry of Fish Industry: "Increasing the Incentive Role of Material Incentives"]

[Text] Wages play an enormous role in developing an economy of developed socialism. A continuous rise in the wage level based on the development of the productive forces, the growth of production and labor productivity, the constant improvement in planning and organizing wages based on the principle of distribution according to labor--these are an indispensable element in the economic policy of the Communist Party and the Soviet government. The advantages of socialism are clearly apparent in the fact that the objective opportunities and conditions are constantly being broadened for carrying out such a policy as well as the arsenal of means by which it is carried out.

Wages under the conditions of socialism have two inseparably linked aspects: in the first place, they are the main source for improving the well-being of the employees and, secondly, there is the strong means of their material interest in increasing and improving production and in further raising labor productivity.

A significant role has been allocated to improving the organization of labor and wages for the employees of the fishing sector in carrying out the tasks posed by the Food Program and in further increasing a broad assortment of high quality edible fish products.

On a broad scale in the sector's enterprises the brigade form of the organization of labor and the Shchekino method are being introduced and ways are being sought to ensure a rise in production with the same or even smaller number of employees.

The party and the Soviet government have shown constant concern for further developing the sector and for increasing the material incentive of the fishery workers to increase the effectiveness of their labor.

From 1 March 1982, there was an increase in the regional coefficient for the wages of ship crews of the production fleet in working in the fishing grounds of the Pacific Ocean and its seas (with the exception of those regions where higher regional coefficients had been set).

From July of the current year, a system of free collective food has been introduced for the crews of fishing, scientific research, fish-tank, isothermal, receiving-transport, technical ships and river fleet fishery patrol vessels and in addition the amounts paid for mess money have been adjusted for all the crews of the seagoing and river vessels.

One of the most important elements in further improving the organization of wages for ship crews in the fishing industry production fleet is the converting of the payment for their labor for the caught, produced product (semifinished product), for the accepted and transported product using comprehensive piece rates calculated proceeding from the salaries and additional payments for over-time hours above normal working time.

While previously the additional payments for hours of extra work were paid for in a fixed amount, and were not considered in paying bonuses and their amount did not depend upon the quality and quantity of the produced product, with the incorporation of these additional payments in the piece rates, they will change proportionally to the quantity of caught fish or the produced fish product and participate in forming the total amount of the bonus.

For example, the crew of a SRTM [medium freezer-trawler] with a planned daily fish catching norm of 40 quintals caught 48 quintals per fishing day, having fulfilled the trip quota by 120 percent. According to the current conditions, the piece rate per quintal of caught fish (without including the additional payments for extra time) has been set at an amount of 3 rubles 52 kopecks. The amount of the additional payment for work above the normal working time for the entire SRTM crew was 1,418 rubles per month (at 40 percent of the salary).

Thus, the earnings of the crew for a fishing month (a catch of 1,464 quintals) will be (without considering the regional coefficient and other payments):

Payment according to piece rates	
of	3 rubles 52 kopecks · 1,464 = 5,123 rubles 28 kopecks
Bonus for fulfillment and overfulfillment of plan	
	$5,123 \text{ rubles } 28 \text{ kopecks} \cdot \frac{40}{100} = 2,049 \text{ rubles } 31 \text{ kopecks}$
Additional payment for extra work	1,418 rubles 00 kopecks
Total	8,590 rubles 59 kopecks

According to the new conditions, in including the additional payments for extra worked hours in the piece rates, the piece rate per quintal of caught fish will be 4 rubles 65 kopecks.

Under the same operating conditions and without increasing the percentage of additional payments, the monthly fishing earnings of the entire crew will be:

Payment according to piece rates	
of	4 rubles 65 kopecks · 1,464 = 6,807 rubles 60 kopecks
Bonus for fulfillment and overfulfillment of plan	
	$6,807 \text{ rubles } 60 \text{ kopecks} \cdot \frac{40}{100} = 2,723 \text{ rubles } 04 \text{ kopecks}$
Total	9,530 rubles 64 kopecks

The total earnings of the SRTM crew under the new wage conditions will increase by 940 rubles 05 kopecks (9,530 rubles 64 kopecks - 8,590 rubles 59 kopecks) or by 10.9 percent.

Thus, the incorporation of the additional payment for extra time in the comprehensive piece rates provides a material incentive for the ship crew members to further increase labor productivity, to increase the fish catch and the output of fish products and it links the payment for the extra hours directly to the quantity and quality of the labor.

The introduction of the new procedure for calculating the piece rates will be done simultaneously with a rise in the amount of additional payment for hours of work above the normal work time.

With the introduction of wages using the comprehensive piece rates, the distribution of the piece earnings between the crew members will be carried out using coefficients (shares) determined from the total of the salary and the additional payment for hours of extra work, and as a unit of the coefficient (share) they have adopted the total salary of a deckhand with the additional payment set for this salary for the extra time worked.

Crew Members	Salary, rubles	Extra pay for overtime, rubles	Calculated fund for determining coefficient, rubles	Coefficient (share)
Deckhand	95	28.50	123.50	1.00
Seaman 2d Class	100	50.00	150.00	1.21
Second Engineer	175	35.00	210.00	1.70

For example, the additional payment for hours of work above normal working time has been set (in percent of the salary) as follows: 30 for a deckhand, 50 for a seaman 2d class of the production team and 20 for the second engineer.

The coefficients (shares) for the distribution of the piece earnings are shown in the table.

The new procedure for determining the piece rates with a simultaneous increase in the amount of additional payments for hours of work above normal work time for the crew of the catching, processing and receiving-transport vessels of the Far Eastern Basin went into effect this year, and for the analogous vessels of the Northern, Western and Azov-Black Sea Basins will go into effect on 1 January 1983.

The carrying out of this undoubtedly requires additional money a portion of which should be sought and covered from internal reserves and, in particular, by further increasing the efficient use of the fleet, by reducing unproductive expenditures, by revising the current rates and standards and other factors.

There is no doubt that the ship crews and all the workers of the fishing sector will respond to the concern of the party and government by new labor deeds and will make a contribution to increasing our nation's food resources.

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LABOR

IMPORTANCE OF STRONG LABOR DISCIPLINE, COMBATING MOBILITY REVIEWED

Moscow KHOZYAYSTVO I PRAVO in Russian No 11, Nov 82 pp 34-38

[Article by L. Kostin, first deputy chairman of the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems: "The Value of a Working Minute — Problems of Reducing Worker Mobility and Strengthening Labor Discipline"]

[Text] After setting its policy of raising production efficiency and work quality the 26th CPSU Congress posed the challenge of resolutely strengthening labor discipline. This is one of the greatest reserves for increasing public wealth, and it is a reserve that does not require additional expenditures or capital investment.

"In present-day public production equipped with progressive technology," L. I. Brezhnev has said, "the role of labor discipline has especially grown. The very cost of downtime, unconscientious actions, and mistakes is entirely different today. It is one thing, for example, for a man with a shovel to stand idle for 30 minutes, but it is completely different if a man operating a powerful excavator, combine, or tower crane is idle for half an hour. They are entirely different things."

Socialist labor discipline is a broad concept. It encompasses not only following internal labor regulations, making full use of working time, and carrying out orders precisely, but also a conscious, creative attitude toward one's work, insuring that it is done very well, initiative by working people, and a sense of responsibility for the assigned job.

The rise in the material and cultural level of the people, the improvement in the organization of production and labor, working conditions, and wages, and implementation of a broad program of housing and cultural-domestic construction have enabled us to achieve certain successes in strengthening labor discipline and reducing worker mobility. In the 1970's alone average working time lost per worker declined from 2.9 to 1.7 days in industry and from 4.1 to 2.7 days in construction. Worker mobility in industry dropped 24 percent, while in construction it declined 31 percent. Positive changes took place in practically all sectors of the national economy, in the republics, and in different regions of the country. The most tangible results came in connection with the action of ministries, departments, enterprises, and institutions who, together with party, trade union, and Komsomol organizations, implemented a broad program of measures

envisioned by the 13 December 1979 decree of the CPSU Central Committee, the USSR Council of Ministers, and the AUCCTU entitled "Further Strengthening Labor Discipline and Reducing Worker Mobility in the National Economy." Thus, in the last two years worker mobility in industry and construction has decreased almost as much as in the preceding 7-8 years. There have been decreases in loss of working time for entire and partial shifts and losses related to time off authorized by the administration.

But the existing situation with respect to labor discipline still does not meet the contemporary requirements of economic development and solving social problems and it makes it more difficult to fulfill the tasks that face associations, enterprises, and other economic organizations. Therefore, the problems of raising discipline continue to be very pressing.

In the first place, the deepening social division of labor and development of specialization and cooperation make it imperative to strengthen production ties both within the enterprise and among enterprises. A breakdown in production in one sector has a negative impact on the economic activity of other subdivisions of the enterprise as a whole. Failure to fulfill plans for sale of output in the assigned assortment and in conformity with contracts leads to disruption of the work of many other enterprises.

In the second place, production is increasingly introducing machines and equipment with large unit capacity, automatic and flow lines, and conveyor sections and shops. Under such conditions the importance of each working minute rises substantially, and violation of labor discipline by even one worker causes great harm to production. In the third place, according to statistical data growth in the population in the able-bodied age bracket will decline quite noticeably in the 1980's compared to the 1970's. This fact cannot be ignored. With a large demand for labor it is important not to lower requirements as to discipline, to intensify the organizing role of planned distribution and redistribution of personnel, and to reduce unnecessary mobility.

In the fourth place, social factors also dictate the necessity of strengthening labor discipline by every means. Instilling people with a communist attitude toward labor and high consciousness is an essential condition for successful development of production and educating the new type of human being.

Despite a certain improvement in the indicators that characterize the general state of labor discipline, the national economy still suffers great losses because of absenteeism and downtime on the job. In 1981, for example, many hundreds of thousands of workers were absent every day at industrial enterprises, construction organizations, and railroad and motor vehicle transportation enterprises. The loss related to worker mobility reaches several billion rubles each year. Meanwhile, as statistics testify, the loss of just one percent of working time in industry is equivalent to a drop of more than 6.5 billion rubles in production of output.

Experience convinces us that the greatest successes in strengthening labor discipline are achieved where measures toward this end are carried out comprehensively: production rhythm is insured, labor organization is consistently

refined, and the material and nonmaterial incentive to work for a long time and irreproachably at a single enterprise increases.

The experience accumulated by enterprises in Moscow, Dnepropetrovsk, Vladimir, and Gorky oblasts and the cities of Moscow and Leningrad with creating stable production collectives deserves fixed attention. Worker mobility of these places has not exceeded 10-12 percent in recent years, which is lower than the average for the country. The successes they have achieved are a result of the comprehensive approach in work by party, Soviet, economic, trade union, and Komsomol bodies to keep workers in production.

The Dnepr Machine Building Plant imeni V. I. Lenin, the VAZ Association, the Dneproshina Association, and the Lipetskstroy Trust have earned excellent reputations in their sectors. Creative application and elaboration of progressive work methods, including the Shchekino and Dinamo methods, produce a palpable economic and social benefit. The interest of workers in the results of the collective's labor has increased noticeably in these places. The allocation of personnel has become more rational and occupations are combined. A great deal is done to raise the qualifications of production workers. As a result, losses of work time and labor expenditures have declined, the adaptation of new workers has been stepped up, and the moral-psychological climate has improved.

Comprehensive measures to reduce manual labor, skillful organization of socialist competition, planned reconstruction and capital repair, and withdrawing production facilities that do not meet contemporary demands from use are promoting the success. A great deal of attention is devoted to the development of networks of nonproduction facilities which provides a basis for more fully meeting the workers' needs for housing and domestic and social-cultural services. A great deal of work is being done to keep young people in production.

At the same time, there are still unused opportunities for strengthening labor discipline. Putting them to use would unquestionably help solve the most important socioeconomic problem posed by the 26th CPSU Congress: completing the transition to intensive methods in all sectors and spheres of the national economy in the 1980's. We must remember that reducing losses of working time makes it possible to produce more output with the same number of production personnel. It has been calculated that if these losses in industry were reduced even by one-half, it would be possible to receive tens of millions of rubles more of output.

An important indicator that characterizes loss of working time directly at the production site is the figure for whole-day and within-shift downtime. Statistics show that within-shift losses in industry are 0.1-0.3 percent of total working time today. But the true amount of these losses is much greater, reaching 8-12 percent. The point is that existing statistical reports of violations of labor discipline and losses of working time are far from completely reflecting the situation. The reason for this is flaws in primary accounting, which records only those within-shift downtime periods which are noted in special downtime logs. But within-shift downtime through the fault of workers is not paid for, as we all know, and therefore it is usually not recorded. Very often short (up to 15-30 minutes) forced interruptions because

of organizational-technical problems do not get into the reports either. Enterprises and organizations frequently do not record late arrivals and early departure from the job.

Experience teaches us that where the work is well-organized and during the shift people are kept completely busy discipline is better. And on the other hand, poorly organized labor, lack of production rhythm, and downtime at the start of the month and all-out campaigns at the end are factors which undermine labor discipline and lead to laxity.

Labor discipline and reducing within-shift downtime depend directly on setting labor norms. But this process does not fully meet the increased requirements at many enterprises. So-called experimental statistical output norms which do not conform to technical-economic capabilities and the level of labor productivity attained are still widely used. Lowered norms are like a veil that conceals major shortcomings in the organization of production and labor. They give rise to an irresponsible attitude by workers toward their duties and complacency on the part of section, shop, and enterprise managers.

Absenteeism is an obvious and flagrant violation of discipline which means not only a loss of working time and expensive equipment standing idle, but also causes breakdowns in the work and in neighboring, related production sections. Nonetheless, the level of absenteeism has been declining very slowly in recent years.

A study of the state of labor discipline at many enterprises and construction sites shows that losses of working time and the level of mobility differ significantly by regions, sectors, and especially by individual enterprises. Sometimes enterprises of the same sector with similar working conditions, production characteristics, and level of wages differ by a factor of 1.5-2 for these indicators.

Some enterprises and construction sites treat problems of strengthening labor discipline as a matter for short-term campaigns. Plans worked out in this area are sometimes formalistic and do not insure a tie-in with assignments to raise labor productivity that aim at improving production and the social development of collectives. This greatly reduces their effectiveness.

The progressive know-how of associations, enterprises, and organizations where production is precisely organized, working time is used efficiently, and personnel work is well organized still is not being broadly disseminated. But skillful use of this know-how offers considerable reserves. It would appear that economic managers and trade union and Komsomol organizations should introduce everything new and useful accumulated in practice in a more active and planned manner.

Scientific organizations of labor and raising the level of technical equipment in production promote stronger discipline. This presupposes at the same time creating favorable working conditions and incorporating progressive work methods and procedures.

Despite the steps that are being taken, the number of workers engaged in manual and heavy physical labor is still large. Comprehensive programs to reduce the figure are by no means universal. A large proportion of manual laborers are concentrated in subsidiary operations: in warehouse, lifting and transporting, and loading-unloading work. But calculations show that expenditures for mechanization in these places cost only one-third to one-fifth of expenditures in primary production. There must be a sharp increase in the production of the appropriate equipment. After all, according to the findings of sociological studies, many people who leave jobs at their own desire do so precisely because they are unsatisfied with working conditions.

When preparing for and taking steps to reduce manual labor it is important to make broader use of internal reserves in the area of mechanizing production, in particular with heavy and labor-intensive work. The enterprises of Latvia and Zaporozhye, Kuybyshev, Chelyabinsk, Dnepropetrovsk, and a number of other oblasts are setting an example in this.

Broad introduction of the brigade form of labor organization and stimulation promotes a rise in production efficiency. In his talk at the 17th Congress of USSR Trade Unions Comrade L. I. Brezhnev observed that the comprehensive brigades working according to a single order achieve a significant savings of time and labor and material resources. They have stronger discipline, higher earnings, and young workers learn their skills faster. And of course, they also have higher labor productivity. At the present time more than 52 percent of production workers in industry are working on the brigade method. Such collective forms of labor organization as work on a single order with payment for final results and the brigade contract are specially effective. But while certain positive results have been achieved in spreading brigade labor organization in quantitative terms, from the standpoint of quality, that is using the most efficient forms of brigades, there are still serious shortcomings. Only half of the brigades existing today work on a single order and are paid by final results, and less than 10 percent have brigade contracts.

Broad introduction of the brigade form of labor organization and stimulation and the work know-how of leading brigades and workers in all sectors of the economy promotes successful realization of the resolutions of the 26th CPSU Congress concerning raising production efficiency. The decree of the CPSU Central Committee, USSR Council of Ministers, and AUCCTU entitled "Measures Toward Further Raising Labor Productivity at Light Industry Enterprises on the Basis of All-Out Dissemination of the Brigade Form of Labor Organization and the Know-How of Leading Workers in Increasing Equipment Service Zones and Reducing Labor Expenditures for Manufacture of Output" aims at precisely this.

The role of social factors in creating stable collectives and strengthening labor discipline is rising steadily. Among these factors are improving housing and domestic conditions, expanding the system of preschool institutions for children and Pioneer camps, improving the work of dining halls and domestic services in production, and so on. Enterprises have now been given the right to provide free aid and grant loans for cooperative and individual housing construction (chiefly to regular workers and newly married couples). In case of discharge for absenteeism or other violations of labor discipline and also

when a worker leaves at his own wish without justifying reasons the money received from the enterprise must be repaid within an established time. Unfortunately, this very effective means of promoting workers stability is still not used adequately.

The construction of preschool institutions for children is one of the most effective means of preventing workers from leaving production at many enterprises, especially those that use female labor extensively. When the need for such institutions is fully met (usually at enterprises of the textile and garment industries and a few others), worker mobility drops off significantly.

Our country has established a broad system of moral and material stimulation. All incentives are applied by the enterprises manager jointly or with the consent of the trade union committee. Incentives should be timely and based on real labor accomplishments. The resolutions of the 26th CPSU Congress pointed to the need to make material and moral incentive more effective, to enhance the stimulating role of labor payments, and to make bonuses more dependent on the labor contribution of each worker.

As of 1 January 1983 the amount of the supplement to the old-age pension for continuous work by workers and employees with at least 25 years of service rises from 10-20 percent; this also applies to women with children who have at least 20 years of service at one enterprise or organization. Moreover, a supplement of 10 percent of the pension for continuous service at one enterprise will be computed in addition to the maximum old-age bonus.

The role of the labor collective is especially great in strengthening labor discipline. It is expected to work energetically to instill people with pride in their occupation and their enterprise. The collective must not tolerate any manifestations of poor discipline and mismanagement. They must strive for a high level of organization and rhythm in the work.

The role of collectives in strict observance of internal labor regulations must be enhanced by every means. It is very important to use measures of social and disciplinary influence on offenders with due regard for the decisions of worker meetings, councils of production brigades, and councils of brigade leaders, to improve the activity of comrade's courts and councils for prevention of legal offenses, and to involve regular workers and labor veterans in them. Each collective should establish an atmosphere of high standards and intolerance of all offenses. No case of absenteeism or late arrival at work should be overlooked. Economic managers and public organizations have great capabilities and substantial rights in this area. Their job is to use them skillfully.

Most people who violate labor discipline and leave production jobs are under the age of 30 and have had short labor careers. Therefore, enterprises which work systematically on labor and moral indoctrination of new workers, develop tutorial systems, organize the labor of young people rationally, improve working conditions, raise the qualifications and professional skills of employees, and create Komsomol-youth sections, brigades, and teams have a higher level of discipline and insignificant mobility. A number of enterprises in the city of Dnepropetrovsk, for example, have less than 14 percent turnover.

At the same time, there are many cases where young workers (including graduates of vocational-technical schools) are not used in their specializations, and end up chiefly in subsidiary work. There are also shortcomings in working conditions. The need of young people for tutors is far from being fully met yet, and sometimes untrained people are enlisted for this work.

Experience shows that strengthening labor discipline is an important factor in the development of production, raising work efficiency and quality, and indoctrinating the citizen of socialist society. Purposeful and planned work in this direction has a great economic and social impact. That is why it is important to strengthen labor discipline by every means, using the entire arsenal of economic, legal, and indoctrination measures.

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LABOR

IMPACT OF FAMILY PROBLEMS ON WORK PERFORMANCE RECOGNIZED

Moscow KHOZYAYSTVO I PRAVO in Russian No 11, Nov 82 pp 39-41

[Article by I. Volodin, senior legal adviser, Ministry of Tractor and Agricultural Machine Building and A. Zaytsev, candidate of philosophical sciences: "In the Family and on the Job" under the heading "The Labor Collective and the Law"]

[Text] The situation is familiar to many of us. A worker has come to his job in a bad mood. A sensitive boss will handle him with understanding and be filled with sympathy for his concerns. But another will say: "Leave your emotions at home!" And the worker will go to his station in a doubly negative frame of mind . . .

Instability of cadres as well as poor productivity and labor discipline are often bound with invisible threads to the action of causes that originate beyond the confines of the immediate production process. For example, the Dnepropetrovsk sociologists found that a considerable proportion of conflicts at the machine-building plant imeni V. I. Lenin are "familial," so to speak, in origin. Naturally, to find the concealed influence of family relationships on the activity of a collective engaged in production is sometimes difficult. However, the existence of such a connection has been firmly established by both science and practical experience.

Almost every enterprise includes in its plans for economic and social development measures that affect vital interests not only of the worker but also of his family.

However, the unfortunate opinion is still found among some managers that the family is the sphere of private relations and that supporting the family is beyond the confines of the enterprise's interests. Of course, not everything is within the power of the individual collective; yet it must not be forgotten that the improvement of working conditions and daily living for workers as well as the concern of the administration and of social organizations for the everyday needs of the families of collective members are tightly interwoven with the growth of production efficiency.

To carry out a fair "family policy" within a labor collective is difficult because its results are not immediately visible.

Women in the Plant

Constriction of the influx of labor resources to the economy is a phenomenon conditioned by many factors. Most important among them is the lowered birth rate. The materials of the USSR 1979 census documented the reduction in average family size to 3.5 persons: in the city to 3.3 and in the country to 3.8 persons (in 1970, the respective data were 3.7, 3.5 and 4.0). This situation has a negative effect on production also.

These facts become particularly intolerable when certain managers, on one pretext or another, refuse work to elderly mothers, women with young children or young specialists and thus violate the labor laws. In such a position, a woman must quite often choose between working and having a family. Some choose the second. Others (there are many more of these) decline child-rearing and go to work. Some executives find this natural: today there are workers, they think, and tomorrow we will think of something.

Meanwhile, according to demographic and sociological calculations, the current birth rate is insufficient since the average number of children per family ought to be at least 2.3-2.5 merely to maintain the population. After a certain length of time, a boomerang reaction, as it were, could affect all of us, if this situation were not taken seriously, because the continuation of the present tendency to a lowered birth rate will result after 25 years in a proportion of two pension recipients to one worker.

Employment of women outside the home, besides bringing economic advantages, also has great potential for their role as nurturers and raises their position as citizens in society and also within the family. An attempt to limit rationally the work women do on the job and at home is the way to harmonizing their familial and occupational roles. In a Moscow survey, 90% of women of different social groups, occupations and educational standing, when asked whether their occupational or their family and home-related role was more important to them, answered: "Both the one and the other because they complement each other."

"It is plain to everyone," Comrade L. I. Brezhnev stated at the 26th CPSU Congress, "how hard the maternal role is to combine with active participation in professional and social life." For the foreseeable future, at least two approaches to solving this problem seem possible: improved organization of the work of women and the creation of a highly developed technology of daily living.

The especially important problem of employing women rationally could be solved in a way that would make possible a better balance between occupational activities and those at home. What can be done in this regard?

Surveys conducted by sociologists confirm that approximately 40% of the questioned working women wish to be employed for less than a full day or week. Is this possible? We think it is. In recent years, the time the average man can budget as "leisure" has increased, whereas the average woman has the same amount as previously. Some forms of heavy, men's work have disappeared from the household, while women still bear the same heavy burden of housework. A broader spectrum of combined occupations (for men) with introduction of a shortened workday (for women) might relieve the tension of the demographic situation to a substantial degree.

Another problem demands a more rational solution. According to sociological research, women tolerate night shifts or frequent transfers from one shift to another less well than men. This lowers their employability, especially if they have children. Men, on the other hand, have been shown by experience to take relatively well a work schedule alternating among three shifts. For this reason it would be expedient to extend, wherever possible, the utilization of male rather than female labor in night shifts.

Solving these problems would significantly reduce the number of women who leave work for family-related reasons.

In our opinion, it would be useful to discuss the question of whether women with three or more children or children up to eight years old ought not to be offered a number of additional privileges: taking up to two months vacation with pay per year; partially paid leave for up to two years from the birthday of the third child and those after that and the right to work a partial day or week until the child is eight years old.

The Enterprise - a Second Home

At the Ussuriysk refrigerated-car depot, workers frequently come well before the beginning of the shift or stay after work. In the extra time, as they say, they "can get into a good mood." This comes through chess, the latest newspapers and magazines, books, specially selected music, the sauna and the cafe. It is no accident that this solution has virtually eliminated the problem that was a serious one until recently--that of instability of cadres, and that disciplinary offenses have been sharply curtailed.

Complex modern production requires that ways be sought to alleviate the monotony and uniformity of industrial processes. This is true to a high degree for women who work in precise jobs in machine and instrument-building. With scientifically organized work, a whole system of physiologically sound work and relaxation regimens could be devised that would take into account the special features of the organism, the production rhythm and the like. Establishing arboretums and a natural interior, regulating conveyer-belt speed, illuminating the work place optimally, providing regular exercise and accompanying work with music--taken together, this brings about heightened productivity and lowered instability of cadres.

The Young Worker and Home Life

Let us listen to one of the teachers of young people, Brigade Leader A. Kulikov of the Leningrad "Arsenal":

"It has become a tradition with us that the cadre workers look after our young people. And it is not limited to work-related problems. We are interested in the home life, joys and cares of the family and want to know if anything is needed. We invite the parents of young workers to meetings to discuss the results of socialist competition and the success of the teachers' work. In this atmosphere, truly, a mutual moral responsibility comes about between the family and the labor collective, difficulties come to light and we take concrete steps to solve the problems that face us."

What are the main tasks of labor collectives in working with young people in their free time (at their residence)? In this case, it seems to us, attention ought to be channeled in two directions: first, creating more favorable conditions for professional development and the improvement of young people's qualifications and second, organization of their home life and recreation.

Some years ago, the party and Komsomol organizations as well as pedagogical and other collectives of Kemerovo Oblast carried out an intensive program to acquaint graduates of the schools with construction processes. A survey showed that a considerable number of them wanted to work in this branch. However, only a few chose corresponding specialties. Why did this happen? As it turned out, contact had been made only with the young people. The parents did not participate, but it was precisely they who were the source of a negative assessment of the prestige value of these occupations.

It seems that it is important, in working with young people to train them for occupations, not only to educate them in special schools and vocational/technical institutes, but also to conduct regular work with students' families.

Labor collectives should not be indifferent to the way their members' leisure time is organized. The majority of enterprises and institutions live with distant goal and are concerned to create good living conditions for workers along with accomplishing the objectives of production. At the combine "Rostsel'mash," then, a "home service" has been established at the plant. For the needs of children of the workers and employees, there are kindergartens, nurseries, Pioneer camps and resorts connected with the plant. There are a children's railroad, sports fields and a motor town; various clubs meet at the palace of culture. Dwellings are built under plant auspices, educational opportunities are made available in the dormitory and children are cared for after school. This many-faceted work has made possible the elimination of many difficulties that conflict with forming a stable labor collective.

Family, Law, Industry

Those employed with legal services generally are asked at enterprises to decide predominantly production-related questions, devoting less attention to the social and familial ones. Of course, there are reasons for this. Meanwhile it becomes a more and more real necessity that legal consultants participate on a day-to-day basis in solving such problems. One of the reasons for this is the fact that a considerable part of the population is rather poorly acquainted with the laws in force concerning the interrelationship between the worker and the enterprise. Legal services are in a position to become a kind of informational and propaganda center for the legal and social policy of the state where citizens live and work. This activity may take on quite varied forms: universities, lecture series on the law, publications in newspapers with a large circulation, radio broadcasts and the like.

Considerable experience with such work has been acquired at many enterprises. For example, let us take the Khar'kov tractor motor plant. Here a radio law university is operating. In the course on one year, such subjects have been studied as "Scheduling and working conditions for utilizing the labor of part-time working women," "Review by comrades' courts of cases involving labor discipline and the social order," and others. Many materials on legal subjects appear in the wall newspaper.

At the Altayskiy Motor Works Combine imeni 25th CPSU Congress, the legal service joined the plant polyclinic in organizing a school for young mothers, with twice-monthly courses on labor laws, home and occupational hygiene, the norms for privileges for women with children and similar topics.

It is still always necessary to point out that some enterprises still by no means utilize all possible forms of action to secure a fair "family policy" in the labor collective. In our opinion, it would be useful to take up these matters more often at legal consultants' meetings, at interplant schools for the exchange of information, at conferences and in institutes of continuing education.

Legal specialists could provide great help, too, in studying the problems of the interaction of the family with the labor collective and in working out appropriate recommendations.

Legal consultants could take a more active part in the family assistance councils that have been established at enterprises and in institutions. Problems in the observance of laws affecting women's and young people's labor ought to be handled under their active control. Special sections devoted to work in this direction, it seems, ought to be provided for in planning the activities of legal services.

Even now, too little attention is paid to these questions in many labor collectives. In the meantime it is clear that, in those enterprises that have created all the necessary conditions for harmonious family development, the expenses for this in time and money are greatly exceeded by the rewards.

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LABOR

DIFFICULTIES FACING WORKING MOTHERS DETAILED

Moscow ZHURNALIST in Russian No 8, Aug 82 pp 50-53

[Article by Irina Gerasimova: "Unwanted Dolls"]

[Text] A woman who is a docent and a candidate of sciences, who appears to have a promising career in an interesting field, is complaining about her life. It might seem that she has nothing to complain about. She got an education, she got married and she had a child--one child. Then she went on to get a degree. But suddenly she realized that she would be much happier as the mother of a large family. The degree, the title and the respected professional status for which she worked so many years now do not seem worth the sacrifice.

Feelings like these are now being expressed in one way or another, and discussed from one vantage point or another, in newspaper and magazine articles. The latest one I encountered was a letter from L. Kireyeva, printed under the heading "Who Is the Master of the House?" in the 8 January 1982 issue of SOVETSKAYA KUL'TURA. I would have given the letter another heading: "Children or a Career?"

This wording might sound drastic, but many women face precisely this choice. The woman can either be a fully committed worker--and fully committed, creative and qualified people who are selflessly dedicated to their work are needed now more than ever before--and try her best to cope with a single child, or she can look for work that requires less effort, preferably with a flexible schedule, and not strive for professional advancement. In other words, she can choose a lower social status, but then she can have the luxury of two children (an urban family with three children is now such an extraordinary entity that it is the subject of special studies by demographers and sociologists. L. Kireyeva would like to have the "luxury" of 10 children).

I also managed only to write my candidate's dissertation and have one child, although when I was 17, and even when I was 25, I also wanted to have many children--even though I wanted only seven, and not ten. Like many other women who read this article, I am now wondering whether I did the right thing.

The problems of raising a family and combining the duties of a mother and housewife with participation in social production are the subject of my work. With the newspaper reprint of this letter in hand, I hope to compare all of the opinions that have been expressed in writing and verbally at many scientific symposiums,

colloquiums and conference with regard to the matter that is concerning L. Kireyeva and me. I want to compare these opinions with reality.

A few months ago two scientific conferences were held almost concurrently in Dushanbe. The first was held to discuss the problems of population reproduction in our country and the principles of the active demographic policy outlined by the 26th CPSU Congress. The second discussed the formation and efficient use of labor resources in the national economy. I think it does not take an expert to see the natural connection between these two topics and the reason for their almost simultaneous discussion.

Around three-fourths of the specialists who came to Dushanbe attended both conferences.

Each woman's fate is connected with the overall sociodemographic situation in which she grows up and lives.

It is a well-known fact that the birth rate in most of the USSR began to decline dramatically in the mid-1960's. The age structure of the population naturally changed. The absolute and relative number of adults increased (this phenomenon is often called the aging of the population) and the number of children decreased. The result was a decrease in the number of people of working age, and this result will be most apparent in the second half of the 1980's.

What do demographers have to say about this? The opinions expressed in the press can be divided into two groups if we consciously simplify and condense the great variety of these opinions.

The first group of opinions, which could be called somewhat objective, dispassionate and calm, are based on a statistical analysis of birth rate dynamics over the last 100 years in our country and in the majority of developed countries. This kind of analysis testifies that the declining birth rate and the stabilization of the process of population reproduction on a low level constitute a universal process or a worldwide demographic trend.

The second viewpoint and the forms of its expression are more emotional. Its adherents believe that the natural process of reproduction must not evolve into a situation in which the younger generation does not completely replace the parent generation (which occurs when there are only one or two children in a family).

The first point of view is appealing because of its academic imperturbability and solid statistical grounds. After all, statistics are unyielding and there is nothing we can do about them. But how far could the decline go? Do we have the right to coldbloodedly ascertain its irrevocability without making any attempt to find out more about the determining factors? And the main question, in my opinion, is this: Does this reality accord with the wishes of the families which have created it with their own collective behavior? What do women want and will they get what they want?

This is not a simple question. Training in the home and in the schools is based on the conviction that the value of the individual, his significance and his worth stem from production achievements and services. We grew up in families where both parents worked (studies have shown that the mother who does not work and who "sits around

the house" is not looked up to by her own teenage children), and our children have parents who have always worked. How should they deal with the fact that their parents never have enough time to spend with them--a shortage of time which makes a mother and her son or a father and his daughter familiar strangers and which predisposes our children to do the same when they have children of their own?

But what is the alternative? And is there one?

Let us look at what the women who write letters to the editors of IZVESTIYA, TRUD and KOMSOMOL'SKAYA PRAVDA have to say.

"One child is not a real family. It is better when there are many...." "My husband wants to have a second child and I also think about this, but I get so tired working and taking care of just one." "For the future well-being of our society, I and she and all women of our age must have two or three children. I myself want this very much...."

Yes, we still think of the big family as the ideal! Speaking from my own experience, at our class reunions (there are around 200 of us), the people who command the most interest and attention are not the "girls" who have defended dissertations or the "boys" who are grayer and fatter and have become doctors of sciences, but the few of us "lucky ones" (or "heroes") who have two children (I do not think any of us have three). I still remember the words of an interesting and talented woman, a director who has worked long and productively in the theater and in television: "When young actresses come to me for advice because they have to choose between having a second child or playing a new and interesting part that might never be offered to them again, I always tell them that no part, no career-related excitement, can be a substitute for the joys of motherhood. A person needs a big family and the joy of communicating with relatives--without this, most other things lose their meaning and value."

Joy is rarely mentioned in journalistic articles about the family as a factor or argument in favor of the big family. This is particularly noticeable now that all press organs seem to have "the family in focus."

This is how one writer (a woman, please take note!) describes a happy family with five children. She says how friendly they are, how they help their mother from their earliest years and how they take care of their younger siblings.... She ends her article with the most emphatic statement: "As we know, there is a shortage of manpower in our country and big families should therefore command respect." We will return to this "as we know." For now, we will assess the logic of the statement. Mothers of large families can help us out of a difficult economic situation and they consequently deserve our respect. But if there were no manpower difficulties? Should the big family then expect no help or support from society? Syllogisms like this are now encountered frequently in newspaper articles.

Therefore, one child is not enough. It is not enough from the standpoint of population reproduction and it is not enough for the creation of a normal and real family, for the full enjoyment of the joys of motherhood. But where can a woman find the time to raise two children, or, even better, three? Should we rely, as we often do now, on preschool establishments? This is precisely what V. Perevedentsev said

when he reported on the subject matter of both conferences in VECHERNIY DUSHANBE and simultaneously took advantage of his position as an authority on the matter to give local journalists advice on practical guidelines in their work: "The younger generation can replace its parents if there are 260 children for each 100 families." He then went on to say: "The problems of providing young families with housing and nursery and kindergarten facilities are gradually being solved." The wording is strikingly vague, but this is not the important thing.

Here is another letter from a reader: "My heart bleeds when I see a sobbing toddler being dragged against his will to a nursery or kindergarten early in the morning by a mother who is in a hurry to get to work! He loves his mother and does not want to leave her to go to a strange lady (or a variety of ladies) and he wants to stay at home, in a peaceful atmosphere where he can get his bearings, think a little, dream a little and do what he wants...." Yes, this does happen. It has happened to me and some mornings my young coworkers tell me in distress that it has happened to them. But this does not mean that the value of the system of public preschool education should be questioned. This is a matter of the proper combination of family and public education during different periods of childhood, a matter of reasonable proportions, a matter of balance and, in the final analysis, a matter of the happiness of the mother and her toddler.

But why am I saying toddler? Is it only the young child who needs a close and full relationship with his mother?

"I have two children of school age," a young woman writes. "I only see them for half an hour in the morning and two hours in the evening before bedtime. I sometimes have no idea what they do all day. Then when I am sick and stay at home--this is sad but true--my children are overjoyed: 'Mother is home! How wonderful!'"

There is one solution: All of the demographic policy measures outlined at the 26th CPSU Congress and in the well-known party and governmental decrees adopted immediately after the congress must be implemented consistently and in full. Part-time jobs for women, with flexible schedules, must be made readily available; women must have more opportunity to work in the home and to take legal and sufficiently lengthy leaves from work.

But, I hear people asking: Is this possible? Is it realistic? After all, it will reduce the number of women employed in social production substantially! We already see want ads wherever we look. Besides this, would the unavoidable drop in family income not injure the family's financial status?

Let us look for some answers to these questions.

Readers who are constantly hearing that "the birth rate is declining" and that, consequently, "there is no one left to work" will probably be interested in learning the facts.

In the 9 years after the 1970 census the population of the Soviet Union increased by 20.7 million, reaching the 262-million mark at the time of the 1979 census (according to the forecasts of the Central Statistical Administration, the 270-millionth Soviet citizen will be born this summer). According to the estimates

of UN experts, by the beginning of the 21st century the USSR will rank third in the world, after China and India, in terms of population.

As for the age structure of our population, or the relative numbers of children, working-age individuals and the elderly, it is displaying the same tendencies as the populations of all developed countries: The proportional number of children is decreasing, the number of elderly is increasing slightly, and the number of "working-age" individuals is constant, with only slight fluctuations. In other words, in terms of manpower, we are "no worse off than others." Furthermore, although "aging of the population" is characteristic of all developed countries, this process became apparent in the USSR only a relatively short time ago.

But the age composition of the population is an indicator of potential labor resources. Perhaps the problem lies in the degree to which these resources are included in productive activity?

The facts testify that they are included to the maximum. The relative number of working-age individuals employed in social production rises with each year. The rise in the level of female employment has been particularly dramatic. The proportion accounted for by women in the total number of workers and employees rose from 47 percent in 1960 to 51 percent by the mid-1970's. Many experts call this high level of female employment in social production "extra-employment," and they are more likely to sound alarmed than pleased when they use the term. It is true that "extra-employment" in social production naturally detracts from other spheres of life.

Therefore, the number of potential workers is inadequate. Employment is high but there is a manpower shortage. An energetic search has been launched to find solutions. Here economists, just as demographers, fall into two opposite categories.

The members of the first group concentrate on quantity. They invariably associate all manpower shortage problems with the demographic situation and are constantly in search of unutilized labor reserves. Mothers of large families, elderly people who have already earned the right to take a rest and collect a pension, adolescents and young adults who need more education and vocational training--all of these groups and categories are painstakingly counted and recounted and are evaluated from the standpoint of their possible labor output.

But the time schedule and workload of a woman who already has three or four children (and might even have three or four more) must be examined quite thoroughly before she is asked to take a job. Otherwise, all of these calculations turn into meaningless manipulations of columns of figures on paper.

And there is something else. When we say "work" we are generally referring to work in social production. Housework is treated as if it were not work at all, as if it did not take effort and time, use up our energy and create emotional strain. It is as if it were of no socioeconomic value to society! The words "demographic policy" can be repeated a hundred times and backed up with the proper quotations, but as long as the household is viewed as something in opposition to social production, none of these statements can produce any tangible results.

Here are some lines from letters to editors:

"Life is a stern and demanding taskmistress when it forces a woman to be a housewife." Another letter says: "Everything takes effort and time. Talking to a child, teaching him to be neat and polite, creating a warm and protective atmosphere in the home for all family members! It takes so much effort and patience."

Here is what a woman who has been a geologist for 30 years and has two children and five grandchildren has to say. What a contrast to the cold statement of the learned analyst! "The urban family in the developed socialist society has completely lost its economic function. Nothing is produced in the family and all items of consumption come from outside the home.... Work within the family has ceased to be productive work...." Let us not find fault with her choice of specific words. The only important thing is to realize that the organization of family affairs, the reproduction of life and the restoration of physical and mental health that take place within the family also require time and effort. They must be included in the general accounts of the time and labor resources available to society.

What is the position of the second group of experts on labor resources? They do not draw the same kind of absolute connection between the manpower shortage and the demographic situation. They argue that labor problems are mainly the result of shortcomings in production organization and in the use of existing manpower. In other words, they are more concerned with quality than with quantity. According to these scientists, the more precise organization of labor and the augmentation of output can, even without additional capital investments, eradicate or substantially alleviate the manpower shortage.

We will stop here: The continuation of the discussion of the efficient use of labor resources is a matter for experts. But what has already been said seems to be sufficient grounds for the opinion that tangible socioeconomic conditions exist for the more harmonious combination of motherhood with an interesting career.

Let us consider how these conditions might be utilized. A significant experiment was conducted when the television program "The Family Circle" was being filmed. Women--each had three children--applied for jobs but encountered polite refusals everywhere. The authors of the film clearly sympathized with the women and were censuring and ridiculing the shortsighted managers who had no sympathy for the big family.

But perhaps the managers were right? Everyone has met "semi-workers" who are always late, are constantly asking for time off, are always distracted and always refuse to take outside assignments, work overtime or perform other duties which are naturally shifted to someone else. And what about the women themselves--can this work give them much pleasure? They are mentally and physically exhausted, depressed by feelings of inferiority and upset by the disapproving glances of bosses and coworkers. This keeps them from experiencing the genuine joys of motherhood to the fullest. They are dolls left on the shelves of urban and rural stores--unsaleable surplus goods.

Obviously, the big family should not be helped by giving the woman the same workload "as everyone else" but by establishing a special schedule and a special work

routine for her, particularly since this essentially applies only to a few years out of her life, a small portion of her working years.

I recall a letter, printed a few years ago in a central newspaper, from a woman architect. I think she was from Leningrad. When her son entered the first grade, she transferred to part-time work. All of the results were positive. The little boy avoided "extended-day care," he did excellent schoolwork under his mother's supervision and he developed invaluable academic skills for a lifetime. The mother did not feel torn, and if it is true that happiness consists in going to work with pleasure and returning home with joy, she was happy. Her work did not suffer because she regarded time as a precious commodity and used each minute much more effectively. It was during these years that she completed some of her most interesting creative projects. Therefore, even the studio manager could not regret her decision to "indulge herself."

There are special decrees which stipulate that the working mother has the right to limit her workload for her own convenience. But a woman who has exercised this right is certainly a rarity!

But why is this so? Why are the part-time day, shorter work week and flexible work schedule which have become so common in other countries, such a rarity in our own? This matter deserves thorough investigation. Women say that administrators are resisting this. In industry they blame it on the peculiarities of the technology, in construction they blame it on the labor shortage and in trade they blame it on collective financial responsibility. There are even places where no arguments are cited at all and the answer is simply "No." "If you don't like it, quit." By an irony of fate, the latter group includes some newspapers--the same newspapers that are now so interested in family problems.

How valid are all of these excuses? The requirements of technology, for example, are approximately the same abroad but do not keep women from working a part-time day. And is it even right that a woman in this situation should be completely dependent on her manager, on his goodwill? If she has been given a specific right, then certain more solid guarantees must lie at its basis!

As far as I know, this problem also has its legal aspect and this also needs to be cleared up. The administration would probably be much more tractable if it had the right to hire two "halves" instead of one "whole" woman. But this is prohibited. A full staffing unit must be wasted on each "half." Who is to do the other half of the job?

These are real problems. Nevertheless, I think they can be overcome more quickly and more successfully if women clearly insist on their right to reduce their workload. They should notify their party committee and plant committee, write to the newspaper, issue demands and exercise this right. This might not work immediately, but it will work! As far as I can see, however, women do not want to do this. They cannot swear that they are prepared to change their customary way of life. And what is most important, they do not know if they are capable of deriving joy and creative satisfaction from household affairs, or even from prolonged contact with the very children for whose sake they will be undertaking this struggle.

A few years ago I was writing an article about jobs that could be performed in the home by women and about the advantages of this kind of work. For many people, it has been a great help during certain periods of life. My belief was backed up by a pleasant childhood memory. Our neighbor Ol'ga Ivanovna was a seamstress who worked in her home after the war. But many of the women I approach now with questions about work in the home seem to be offended by the very idea. This is not, they say, why we went to school!

It is true that the forms of employment which actually save the woman from being "torn" between motherhood and a career are new, unfamiliar and not always comprehensible. Journalists could do so much to eradicate this prejudice if they studied and popularized every experiment of this nature, however rare and timid they still might be.

But prejudice is prejudice, and women usually have quite valid reasons for their doubts. None of us have surplus money. How will we live if our family budget is reduced by a quarter or perhaps even more? And then it will be even more difficult to contemplate any additions to the family!

The most simple and valid solution is that a man's salary should increase by at least as much as the decrease in his wife's salary. But the obstacles keeping a man from increasing his workload are even greater than those that keep the woman from reducing hers.

A man sitting on a couch in front of a TV set with a newspaper in his hand is a scene that has become something like a symbol of our times. It is a trite and hackneyed image and we are bored with it, but it will not disappear. It continuously wanders from one satirical article to another and from one cartoon to another, apparently because the associations it evokes are too tenacious and apt. But perhaps we should sometimes wonder why we are asking him to leave his beloved couch. What are we offering him in return? We make accusations and we complain: The mighty male spirit is growing weak, and our husbands do not feel any real sense of responsibility for the family and are not the real master of the house. But the master, after all, is the one who supports the family, and not the one who cooks the meatballs.

When eminent demographer and doctor of economic sciences E. Vasil'yeva conducted a survey, her questionnaire asked: Under what conditions would you decide to have another child? Respondents had to underline one of the suggested responses, which pertained, as usual, to housing, wages, child care facilities and so forth. But there was a blank line below for the woman to write in a response that was not typical or standard. Some questionnaires said: "If my husband loved me." Of course, we do not know precisely what these women meant, but there is no question that the man who tries to help his wife and to make things easier for her by taking on most of the work, loves her.

We are discussing women and we probably should not digress, but it is necessary. The resolution of women's problems requires the resolution of men's.

Studies by sociologists have indicated that many men want to take on extra work. And the most energetic of them do it, bypassing all prohibitions and restrictions

as well as financial inspections. Some of them go to far-off rural communities on their days off to work on construction projects--esteemed engineers and candidates of sciences become "moonlighters." Some of them offer tutoring services. And some suddenly discover an unexpected talent and start sewing jeans. We do not notice this, and if we do we disapprove, calling it "illegal gains." Unfortunately, it is true that this is illegal, but is it right to talk about gains--that is, wealth acquired without labor? I spoke with a young mathematics instructor who gives private lessons to institute applicants. He has a young wife who has not acquired any specialty as yet and two small children. He takes a highly responsible approach to his second job. Is he raking the money in? It is a pittance, just enough to cancel out the negative effects of the absence of a second salary. He does not have a car or a summer place, but he does rent a summer place each year for the children, and this is where much of the money goes.

Let us disregard the social drawbacks of coaching and examine the situation from another vantage point. Here is a good specialist who wants to work more than the specified number of hours. Why should he not have the chance to do this openly and officially and in a job deemed useful by society?

It would be wise to note that all of the present wage practices which we, who have grown used to them, regard as organically inherent features of our socialist order--the practice of combining jobs, the wage "fork" and our ideas about the minimum and maximum wage--took shape at a time when employment in social production had to be augmented and women had to be drawn out of the home. For this reason, the entire complex financial mechanism was designed so that one person could not feed a family and so that it took at least two salaries to make up an adequate family income. At that time, no one cared about the birth rate. But now that society's goals have changed, the time has probably arrived to change the rules.

Children or a career? This was the question asked at the beginning of this article. But is the question fair? It seems that children and a career make up the basis of a full and balanced life for a woman.

The press, radio and television have a great role to play in the formation of public opinion and in the choice of specific ways of attaining this balance.

But who should people listen to, the journalist might ask, when opinions are so conflicting and when specialists themselves have not finished debating the matter? If, for example, advocates of the big family demand the "woman's return to the family" while their skeptical opponents feel that this would be impossible, who should be believed? Obviously we should believe the facts. If we listen carefully to the arguments, we will find that many of the disagreements are imaginary. All it takes is common sense to note that the woman--a living individual with her own life and her own hopes and disappointments--disappears from the discussion and is replaced by some kind of abstract performer of specific functions--the only difference is that the functions are professional in one case and family-related in the other. This formal approach to the individual is common to both of the lofty disagreeing sides.

The newspaper is not simply a rostrum from which various points of view are conveyed to the broad masses. Some journalists--correspondents, essayists and television and radio commentators--are researchers in the direct and full meaning of

the term. Their authority has won them the trust of the people with whom they communicate and an opportunity to enter their lives not as a spy, but as a friend, helper and adviser. Is it at all surprising that journalists are ahead of scientists when it comes to a grasp of modern society? They have mastered the art of grasping subtle changes of mood and deep-seated motives for behavior that are inaccessible to sociologists with their heavy research artillery and broad-scale "field" of observation.

It would be difficult to imagine how we could grasp, without the active assistance and committed work of journalists, the complex fabric of human life and the interaction of events and circumstances--the birth of children, the organization of family life, education and self-education, marital relations, communication and contacts outside the family, interrelations with relatives....

This might be a good place to recall that journalists have a special responsibility to their readers and the people who trust them. After all, when a decision is made by an individual or a family, the decision is based on the moral criteria which we are taught--and much of the teaching is done by the press, radio and television.

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LABOR

MATERNITY, CHILD CARE LEAVE REGULATIONS DETAILED

Moscow KHOZYAYETVO I PRAVO in Russian No 9, Sep 82 pp 81-84

[Article by M. Yeliseyenkova, chief specialist, USSR State Labor Committee: "Leave for mothers to care for newborns and infants"]

[Text] The social program for the 11th Five-Year Plan and future years outlined in resolutions of the 26th CPSU Congress includes additional measures to strengthen state aid to families with dependent children. To assist women in successfully combining motherhood with a job, Resolution #238 of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers dated 22 Jan 81, "On measures to strengthen state aid to families with dependent children" (cf. SP SSSR, No. 13, p. 75, 1981) makes provisions for partially paid leave of absence and extra leave without pay for a mother to care for newborns and infants.

These provisions have been introduced in the following areas:

In rayons of the Far East (Yakut ASSR, Primorsk and Khabarovsk krays, Amur, Kamchatka, Magadan and Sakhalin oblasts), the rayons of Siberia (Buryat ASSR and Tuvin ASSR, Altay and Krasnoyarsk krays, Kemerovo, Novosibirsk, Omsk, Tomsk, Tyumensk, Irkutsk and Chita oblasts) and the northern rayons of the land (Karelian ASSR and Komi ASSR, Arkhangel' and Murmansk oblasts), plus the Vologda, Novgorod and Pskov oblasts, since 1 Nov 81;

In other rayons of the Russian Federation (RSFSR), rayons of the Ukraine, Belorussia, Moldavia and Baltic republics, since 1 Nov 82;

In rayons of Kazakhstan, Central Asia and the Transcaucasus, beginning on 1 Nov 83 (cf. SP SSSR, NO. 24, p. 141, 1981).

Extra leave without pay is granted to women to care for a child under 18 months of age regardless of her seniority.

Partially-paid leave of absence to care for a child under 18 months of age is granted to working mothers (including kolkhoz ladies) having a total of at least one year's seniority. If a woman is attending day classes at a college, special middle school, vocational training center, doing graduate work, clinical residency, taking courses in schools for skill improvement, requalification and personnel training, this leave is granted regardless of job seniority.

In rayons of the country where child care leave has been granted since 1 Nov 81, the allotment is 50 rubles per month, while in other rayons it is 35 rubles.

The overall job seniority which gives a working mother the right to partially paid leave is calculated according to retirement pension funding rules. This means that it includes any job as worker or clerk, regardless of the time unemployed between jobs. Time spent in training in colleges and special middle training institutions, graduate studies or clinical residency, is considered regardless of whether the woman held a job as a worker or clerk before attending school.

The child care allotment for mothers of children under 18 months of age is assigned by the social security commission of the trade union committee. The basis for assigning it is the decision of the administration of the enterprise or training institution to grant child care leave, with a personnel division criterion of at least one year's total job seniority, signed and sealed by the proper authority (no job seniority criterion is required for students) with a copy of the child's birth certificate.

The commission's decision to grant an allotment is formally presented in a protocol, a copy of which is transmitted to the payroll office of the enterprise or training institute for payment.

The allotment is paid every month on payday in the second half of the month or the stipends are issued as an individual pay slip. If a woman did not work for the entire month, the allotment is pro rated for the number of calendar days spent on child care leave that month.

Allotments are paid to female kolkhoz members and contractual workers by the kolkhoz, which is reimbursed for these funds from the centralized union kolkhoz social security fund as stipulated in the joint letter of USSR State Labor Committee, USSR Ministry of Agriculture, and USSR Ministry of Finance, dated 17 Nov 81, # 3341-YuP/269-1/206. The allotment is assigned by resolution of the kolkhoz board of directors.

Young specialists assigned to a job after graduating from a training institution can receive child care allotments for mothers with children under 18 months of age designated and paid at the place of employment.

If woman is fired from a job while on partially paid leave because the enterprise has declared bankruptcy, the allotment is designated and paid by the receivership of the liquidated enterprise or by another enterprise at the direction of the oblast, kray or republic committee of the trade union (or appropriate trade union council).

Partially paid leave and extra leave without pay for child care of newborns and infants may be granted to a woman at her request either immediately after completion of maternity leave or at any time before the child turns 18 months of age.

For example, a textile factory worker in the Khabarovsk kray went back to work after completing maternity leave. After working for two months, she

found out about partially paid leave of absence that had been introduced in the Far East rayons. The woman applied to the factory administration for leave until her child turned one year of age. Since her total length of service was a year, the leave was granted.

In cases where a woman reaches the total length of service for eligibility to receive a child care allotment after maternity leave, partially paid leave is granted as of the day on which she became eligible for this leave.

Let us note that the amount of time for partially paid leave for child care of infants under 12 months of age and extra unpaid leave for child care of infants under 18 months is computed on the following basis:

Overall length of service, continuous length of service, length of service in a job specialty (including assignment of allotments for state social security and state pensions);

Upon payment of a one-time award or bonus for length of service and for length of service in a job specialty, material incentive fund awards for the overall results of an enterprise (13th pay period);

Length of service in a specialty when establishing salaries for workers in education, health care, library sciences and certain other fields;

When granting privileges to persons employed in rayons of Far North and localities equivalent thereto, as well as in the Karelian ASSR, Komi ASSR and Arkhangel' oblast;

In other cases, where the receipt of privileges depends on length of service.

Child care leave time for infants under one is also calculated on the basis of length of service establishing eligibility for pensions under favorable conditions and rates.

In all cases of computing overall continuous length of service and length of service in a job specialty, the duration of partially paid leave and extra leave without pay is considered on the same basis as a job or studies during which the leave is granted.

To assess the value of privileges granted to women, let us consider what is implied by overall and continuous work experience and length of service in a specialty, and the rights applicable to workers who have this kind of job experience.

Overall length of service is the duration of a worker's labor activity as a worker or clerk regardless of the form and nature of her specific job at various times in her life. It also takes into consideration any job in which an employee, who is not a laborer or clerk was covered by state social security insurance, plus periods of equivalent labor activities, especially time served in the USSR Armed Forces. The length of this service governs the worker's eligibility to receive three days of paid child care leave and to receive state pensions.

Continuous service is the duration of the last continuous employment at a given enterprise. The rules for computing continuous job service, confirmed by Resolution #232 of the USSR Council of Ministers, dated 13 Apr 73 (cf. SP SSSR, No. 10, p. 51, 1973) on the basis of continuous job experience also take into account previous employment or any activities. The rates of allotments for temporary disability and eligibility to receive pension increases depend on the length of continuous service.

Job experience in a specialty is the amount of time employed in a specific type of labor activity (specific profession or duty, such as teacher, physician, librarian, tractor driver). This job experience is important in granting privileges and preferences to these workers as prescribed by law. Teachers, physicians, pharmacists and librarians receive official salaries (rates of pay) based on length of service. For their length of service in the specialty, these workers are assigned a pension for length of service when they leave the job. Tractor mechanics and workers in the lumber industry receive a wage bonus for length of service in the specialty.

Other kinds of job experience exist too. For example, job experience in rayons of the Far North and localities equivalent thereto, and in the Karelian ASSR, Komi ASSR and Arkhangel' oblast confers eligibility to receive [Far] North privileges. Workers in these rayons receive wage bonuses: the longer they work in these rayons the larger the bonus.

Practical application of these privileges is best considered with specific examples.

Polyclinic physician Mrs. Morozova works in Siberia, and before going on maternity leave, had job experience in the specialty of 3.5 years. After completing her maternity leave, she requested partially paid child care leave for infants under one, and then extra leave without pay for children under 18 months of age. Upon Morozova's return to work, her official rate of pay will increase, since based on the time spent on these leaves her job experience in the specialty will be over 5 years.

Mrs Semyonova works at an enterprise situated in the Far North, where the wage bonus goes up 10 percent for each additional six month period of employment in these rayons. After taking maternity leave in March of 1981 she received a wage bonus of 40 percent (based on two years of employment in these rayons). Upon Semyonova's return to work after completing partially paid leave and additional leave, the size of the Far North job bonus will increase 30 percent, totalling 70 percent, since the length of service that makes her eligible for this increase includes all the time she spent during these leaves (1.5 years). Furthermore, it does not matter in which rayon the woman and child spent their leave time.

In agriculture, tractor mechanics were given a bonus for job experience in the specialty at a particular farm. If a woman employed as a tractor mechanic is eligible for child care leave, this time will be added to her length of service.

Laborers and clerks employed in hazardous jobs, in very hot shops and on other heavy jobs (Lists #1 and #2) are eligible to receive pensions under

favorable conditions and rates. Pursuant to the law on state pensions to women who have been employed at least 7.5 years on jobs specified by List #1, with total job experience of 15 years or more, the pension is assigned upon reaching 45 years of age. When workers on jobs specified by List #2 have at least 10 years length of service and total job experience of 20 years, pensions are granted upon reaching the age of 50 years. If a woman had children while employed under these conditions, in determining her length of service, time spent on partially paid child care leave will be equated to work conferring eligibility to receive a favorable pension.

Child care leave time is not taken into account only in calculating length of service that confers eligibility for subsequent leave. That means that if a woman has used up her annual leave for maternity leave or after that leave had been completed, her length of service to obtain subsequent leave of absence will be computed starting at the end of extra leave without wages.

In cases where a woman works for a while to accumulate future annual leave before starting or after completing maternity leave, for example a month or two, upon completing child care leave she is eligible to ask the administration to grant her paid annual leave in advance. We must bear in mind that time spent on maternity leave affects length of service calculations for annual leave.

According to the current rules, calculation of average wages for payment of annual and extra leaves is based on the average wages earned in the 12 calendar months before the month leave was begun. To ensure that a woman who has been on child care leave will not receive pay for her subsequent annual leave that is lower than her earnings, unpaid leave time and partially paid leave are ignored in the 12 month calculations, and average earnings are based on the number of months actually worked during this period.

For example, a woman who works at a metallurgy plant in the Novosibirsk oblast gave birth to a child on 1 Mar 81. She came back to work in May after completing her maternity leave. When partially paid child care leave for infants under 1 year of age was introduced in the rayons of Siberia, she formally requested leave from 1 Nov 81 through 1 Mar 82. Starting on 2 Mar 82 the worker returned to work. In April 1982, she asked to be given annual leave in advance. In this case, the period for computing average earnings for leave payments will be the period from 1 Mar 81 to 1 Mar 82. Since time spent on partially paid leave must be excluded from the calculation period, average earnings will be computed on the basis of eight months (allotment for maternity leave for March, April and wages for May through October 1981).

In the event that the calculation period was all spent on partially paid and extra unpaid child care leave, the average earnings for annual leave payment are based on wages earned during the 12 calendar months preceeding child care leave.

When partially paid and extra unpaid child care leave for infants under 18 months is granted, workers in the personnel division note this in the personnel files of the worker and recalculate the start of the woman's working year at that enterprise (i.e., the start of work year is shifted backward by the amount of time spent on leave).

When a woman who combines work and education at a higher or middle special training institution, becomes eligible for paid educational leave while on newborn or infant child care leave, she can interrupt this leave. In this case, with a proper request from the woman and report to the educational institution, she is granted paid leave. She can continue the interrupted child care leave when she completes the educational leave.

While on partially paid and extra leaves (after finishing maternity leave), women remain on the list of available workers, but are omitted from average workforce strength calculations. Granting of women with extra newborn and infant child care leaves is not entered in the service record.

Before partially paid child care leave for infants under one year and extra unpaid leave for infants under 18 months are introduced everywhere in the land, the managers of enterprises, institutions and organizations must, if requested by a woman upon completion of maternity leave, grant her additional unpaid child care leave for infants under one as directed by Explanation # 4/11 ("Byulleten' Goskomtruda" No 6, p. 22, 1970) of the USSR Council of Minister's state committee on labor and wages and the secretariat of the All-Union central council of professional unions dated 30 Mar 70.

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LABOR

REGULATIONS FOR OLD-AGE PENSION INCREASES EXPLAINED

New Rules Explained

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 46, Nov 82 p 16

[Document: "Explanation of Procedures for Calculating Continuous Term of Service at One Enterprise, Institution, or Organization Giving Workers and Employees the Right to a 20 Percent Supplement to the Old-Age Pension (to Point 116 of the Statute on Procedures for Assignment and Payment of State Pensions)"]

[Text] This document was ratified by the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems and the Secretariat of the AUCCTU on 28 October 1982.

In accordance with decree No 117 of the CPSU Central Committee, the USSR Council of Ministers, and the AUCCTU dated 13 December 1979 and entitled "Further Strengthening Labor Discipline and Reducing Personnel Turnover in the National Economy," beginning on 1 January 1983 there will be an increase from 10 to 20 percent in the supplement to the old-age pension for workers and employees who have a continuous term of service of at least 25 years (at least 20 years for women with children) at one enterprise, institution, or organization if, at the same time, they have the right to a pension supplement for total length of service. Under these conditions a supplement of up to 10 percent is added to the maximum pension amount provided.

In response to inquiries received about the system of calculating continuous length of service at one enterprise, institution, or organization giving the right to a 20 percent supplement to the old-age pension and carrying out the commission of the USSR Council of Ministers before 26 October 1982, the USSR State Committee on Labor and Social Problems and the Secretariat of the AUCCTU offer the following explanations:

1. In cases of change in subordinate status, title, or structure of an enterprise, work at it is considered continuous work at one enterprise both before and after such a change.

Length of continuous service at one enterprise is retained both when the employee is transferred to another enterprise being set up (by division, merger, or annexation) on the basis of the enterprise (or enterprises) where he worked

before the transfer and, in addition, when the employee is transferred from one enterprise to another as part of a structural subdivision (group, sector, laboratory, department, shop, and the like).

2. Election work (party, trade union, and Komsomol work on release time) at the same enterprise does not interrupt the term of service giving the right to a supplement and is included in this time.

3. Length of service giving the right to a supplement is not interrupted in cases of conscription for military service, transfer to an elective position, assignment for training, assignment abroad, temporary transfer to another enterprise, or discharge because of illness for disability on the condition, in these cases, that the individual returns to the enterprise within the time envisioned by the Rules for calculating continuous labor service of workers and employees for assignment of state social insurance benefits, ratified by decree No 252 of the USSR Council of Ministers dated 13 April 1973. In this case the time away from work at the one enterprise is not counted in the term giving the right to a supplement.

Length of service giving the right to a supplement is also not interrupted in cases of transfer to another job because of liquidation of the enterprise or reduction of the number of employees at times envisioned by the above-mentioned rules.

4. In those cases where entries in the labor booklet do not contain essential information for calculating continuous length of service at one enterprise, additional documents issued by the enterprise or another competent body should be submitted.

5. The pension supplement is added regardless of when the worker or employee had the required length of service at one enterprise, immediately before application for the pension or at an earlier time.

6. In accordance with the Ukase of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet dated 7 January 1980, the supplement is added when assigning and recalculating the pensions of persons working as workers or employees up to the day when this act goes into effect (1 January 1983) or later. In this case a pensioner's job as a temporary worker or employee (or corresponding work of up to four months) is not taken into account.

7. Points 1-6 of the present Explanation also apply to institutions and organizations.

Official Interviewed on New Rules

Moscow SEL'SKAYA ZHIZN' in Russian 5 Nov 82 p 4

[Interview with V. Mikhalkovich, member of the collegium of the RSFSR Ministry of Social Security and chief of the administration of pensions and subsidies, occasion, place, and date not specified]

[Text] In accordance with decree No 117 of the CPSU Central Committee, the USSR Council of Ministers, and the AUCCTU dated 13 December 1979 and entitled "Further Strengthening Labor Discipline and Reducing Personnel Turnover in the National Economy," by the 7 January 1980 Ukase of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet the supplement to the old-age pension is increased from 10 to 20 percent for workers and employees in a number of cases.

Our correspondent V. Fedyayev asked V. Mikhalkovich, member of the collegium of the RSFSR Ministry of Social Security and chief of the administration of pensions and subsidies, to answer reader questions.

[Question] What are the conditions for adding this supplement?

[Answer] A 20 percent supplement to the old-age pension is added given three simultaneous conditions. First of all, one must have continuous service of at least 25 years at one enterprise, 20 years for women with children. Secondly, the total term of service giving the right to a pension must be at least 10 years more than that required for an assignment of a pension. Thirdly, only those persons who are working on 1 January 1983 or later have the right to addition of the supplement.

[Question] How is the continuous term of service at one enterprise confirmed?

[Answer] For addition of the 20 percent supplement, the continuous term of service at one enterprise, and also the total term of service, can only be confirmed by documents. Terms of service established by witnessed testimony are not counted.

[Question] It is established that a continuous term of service of at least 20 years is sufficient for women with children. How many children must a woman have in this case?

[Answer] One child is enough, regardless of his age or the duration of upbringing. The existence of children (or a child) must be confirmed by a birth certificate (or copy) or a certificate from the housing administration, housing operations office, or rural Soviet.

This kind of confirmation is not required if the woman has a continuous term of service of 25 years or more at one enterprise.

[Question] Is it compulsory that the continuous term of service be immediately before application for the pension?

[Answer] No, it is not. The pension supplement is added regardless of when the worker or employee had the required continuous term of service at one enterprise, immediately before application for the pension or earlier.

[Question] How is the question of the 20 percent supplement decided in relation to persons who have already been assigned a pension?

[Answer] The supplement is added when assigning or recalculating pensions for people working as workers or employees up to the day when the 7 January 1980 Ukase of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet entitled "Old-Age Pension Supplement for Continuous Term of Service at One Enterprise, Institution, or Organization" goes into effect, that is, on 1 January 1983 or later. In this case, working as a temporary worker or employee (or corresponding work for up to four months) is not taken into account.

If a pensioner whose pension was assigned before 1 January 1983 was not working on the above-mentioned date but returned to work later, then he will receive the 20 percent supplement after he works at a permanent job for at least four months.

[Question] Where does one apply for the 20 percent supplement to the pension?

[Answer] Inasmuch as only working people are eligible (this includes pensioners) for the supplement, preparation of all documents is assigned to the administration and trade union bodies. Therefore, the application (declaration) must be addressed to the administration and the trade union committee of the enterprise where the claimant to the supplements works on 1 January (or later).

[Question] The 20-25 year continuous labor term for addition of the supplement must be on a job at one enterprise, institution, or organization. Well, what if there has been a transfer from one enterprise to another because of circumstances beyond the control of the employee.

[Answer] Terms of service at different enterprises, including within one system, are not added together regardless of the reasons for transfer from one job to another, with the exception of certain cases envisioned by the Explanation of the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems and Secretariat of the AUCCTU.

Thus, in cases of a change in the subordinate status, title, or structure of the enterprise, work there both before and after the change is considered continuous work at one enterprise.

The term of continuous service at one enterprise is also retained when an employee is transferred to another enterprise being set up (by division, merger, or annexation) on the basis of the enterprise (or enterprises) where he worked before the transfer. This also applies when the employee is transferred from one enterprise to another as part of a structural subdivision (group, sector, laboratory, division, shop, and the like).

Election work (party, trade union, or Komsomol work on release time) at the same enterprise does not interrupt the term of service giving the right to the supplement and is counted in this term.

The term of service giving the right to a supplement is not interrupted in cases of conscription for military service, transfer to an elective position,

assignment for training, assignment abroad, temporary transfer to another enterprise, and discharge because of illness or disability on the condition that, in these cases, the individual returns to the enterprise within the time envisioned by the Rules for calculating continuous term of service of workers and employees for assigning social insurance benefits, as ratified by decree No 252 of the USSR Council of Ministers dated 13 April 1973. In this case, the time away from work at the enterprise will not be counted in the term of service giving the right to a supplement.

The term of service giving the right to the supplement is also not interrupted in cases of transfer to another job because of liquidation of the enterprise or reduction in the number of employees at times envisioned by the above-mentioned Rules.

[Question] What does one do if the labor booklet does not have the data required for calculating continuous term of service at one enterprise (organization or institution)?

[Answer] In such cases the enterprise (organization or institution) itself or another competent body submits the additional documents. This must also be insured by the administration of the enterprise where the claimant works on 1 January 1983 (or later).

[Question] Can the supplement for continuous service at one enterprise be set above the maximum amount for an old-age pension?

[Answer] The 20 percent supplement to the pension for continuous term of service at one enterprise is determined starting from the basic pension amount. However, the supplement may be set at a rate of up to 10 percent of the basic pension amount beyond the maximum pension (120 rubles). In other words, it can be increased by 12 rubles.

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CSO: 1828/45

EDUCATION

DEPUTY MINISTER DISCUSSES PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Moscow KOMSOMOL'SKAYA PRAVDA in Russian 27 Oct 82 p 2

[Article by deputy USSR minister of education F. Ye. Shtykalo: "Health Class on the School Schedule"]

[Text] Deputy USSR Minister of Education F. Ye. Shtykalo talks about the successes and problems of physical education in schools.

All of us have grown out of our childhood. Our thoughts and feelings and activism in labor depend to a large extent on that stock of knowledge, culture, and health that we received in our school years. The party and government have always devoted great attention to the development of physical education as the most powerful means of improving the health of the younger generation. Hardly more than a year has passed since adoption of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers decree entitled "Further Increasing Mass Involvement in Physical Education and Sports," in which specific tasks were given to workers in education: improve the administration of physical education for schoolchildren; raise the quality of physical education classes; introduce as many physical education and health-improving activities as possible at preschool institutions, schools, and pedagogical institutes. The necessity for every Pioneer and schoolchild in our country to pass the norms of the GTO [Ready for Labor and Defense] test was also discussed at the 19th Komsomol Congress. Are we successfully meeting the challenges, and do the pedagogical collectives work in close contact with Komsomol organizations? In order to answer these questions we must, obviously, begin our discussion with an analysis of sports facilities.

In recent years sports facilities at general educational schools have been significantly expanded. More than half of the secondary and eight-year schools now have gymnasiums. Nearly 40 percent of the country's educational institutions use multipurpose athletic fields for physical education classes. An especially large number of simple sports complexes have been built in Belorussia. In the republic this work has been going forward according to plan for more than five years.

Nationwide our students have at their disposal a total of 76,000 basketball courts, 97,000 volleyball courts, approximately 47,000 soccer fields, 21,000 target ranges, 470 swimming pools, and nearly 9,000 skating rinks.

Komsomol members from schools and sponsoring enterprises and organizations are participating directly in building and improving sports facilities. The USSR Ministry of Education and the State Committee for Sports have been conducting an All-Union competitive inspection for improving school sports facilities for several years now. The greatest successes have been seen in the Ukraine, Belorussia, a number of oblasts of the RSFSR, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, and Lithuania, Moldavia, and Estonia.

Of course, erecting very simple sports structures on the school grounds does not require large material expenditures. Therefore, it is not by chance that the all-Union competitive inspection's slogan is "A multipurpose athletic field for every school."

I think that at this point the absence of athletic fields cannot serve as a justification for the poor organization of mass sports work. According to statistics, one out of every four secondary and eight-year school failed to hold morning exercises during the last school year. Why? The lack of essential conditions for holding exercises is often given as an excuse. But then how can one explain this paradox? Exercises are regularly conducted in almost all schools in the Ukraine, Moldavia, Armenia, and Turkmenistan, while in other republics they are conducted at only half of the schools. The point is that there are more than merely objective factors impeding the introduction of exercises. Evidently, the contrast is explained by different approaches on the part of school administrators to solving this problem. It is apparent that the school Komsomol committees are not working hard enough on this problem.

The extended-day groups in which compulsory hour-long daily classes in physical education are introduced offer great possibilities for physical education of school children. Almost 55,000 schools were already conducting such classes in the last school year. Nevertheless, it is unfortunate that in some places the matter has not yet gone beyond plans and discussion.

There are approximately 2 million youth instructors today in various types of sports at schools. These young people can conduct physical exercises before class well if, of course, they are trained. Older classmates also manage the organization of games with younger children during the midday break and also in the extended-day groups. They can be of great help in preparing for special health and sport days. Unfortunately, school physical education activists are not being used well in organizing mass sports activities. On paper it appears that we have an average of one volunteer sports instructor for every 20 pupils, but there is no one to conduct the classes.

The shortage of coaches and leaders of circles and sports sections is one of the objective reasons for the slow growth in the number of young athletes. In order to involve all pupils in extracurricular physical sports work it will be necessary to have at least another 400,000-500,000 leaders of circles and sections. To do this, naturally, we must recruit volunteer coaches, students from the physical education departments of VUZ'es and other institutes, as well as Komsomol members of sponsoring enterprises and organizations.

But at the present time young athletes from industrial enterprises, kolkhozes, sovkhoses, military units, and educational institutions are reluctant to enter the schools. And if they do appear among the children at all, it is very rarely.

The elementary training groups of sports schools for children and youth are another important promising reserve for physical education of Pioneers and school-children. Three years ago these schools began operating according to new programs and rules of admission. But unfortunately, such a useful undertaking as formation of elementary training groups open to all has not yet received the support of some administrators at sports schools for children and youth and trade union sports societies. We hope for their support.

As we know, the foundation of the physical education movement is the all-Union GTO test. Thus, last year almost 14 million school children received GTO badges. This is a new record for mass involvement.

It is gratifying that for the first time more than 2 million second-grade pupils received GTO badges by passing the beginning level norms called "Ready to start." The number of students receiving GTO badges among the graduating classes of eight-year and 10-year schools increased.

Nevertheless, the fact that work on the GTO test is still not being carried on satisfactorily at a number of schools and even rayons cannot help but alarm us. The challenge is to see that every pupil in the even-numbered grades who has doctor's permission to participate in physical education classes passes the appropriate level of GTO norms by the end of the school year.

In order to meet this goal it is important that teachers use both physical education classes and all types of extracurricular work more actively. I would especially like to draw attention to conducting monthly health and sports days and to the "Starting Point of Hope" competition.

It sometimes happens that the organizers are so carried away by the new activity that they lose perspective in compiling programs and selecting participants. In other words, they over-organize the activity. Others, in contrast, greatly oversimplify it. We must not fall into either extreme. The pupil may lose interest in such contests. There is no child who does not like sports, who does not want to become stronger and better looking. And only we older mentors are at fault for the fact that when the children grow up they avoid the athletic field.

The USSR Ministry of Education recently sent the schools a number of teaching methods materials on organizing mass physical education and health-improving work with school children. Among them were recommendations on preparing for and conducting health and sports days. Following these and other recommendations does not, however, preclude independence on the part of the teaching collectives, Komsomol committees, and councils of physical education collectives. Formalism here is the principal enemy. And on the other hand, a creative approach to the matter determines the success of any measure. We must never forget this.

The most important task is to correctly organize sports competition in the educational system. We must speak out against attempts to hold student competition far from home. This requires large material expenditures and takes students away from their studies. It should become the rule that all large-scale competition for school children take place during vacations, days off, and holidays.

The 19th Komsomol Congress recommendations state that Komsomol organizations should be the leading force in development of the mass physical education movement and strive to see that every Komsomol member, Pioneer, and young person is a GTO badge earner and regularly engages in physical training, sports, and tourism.

Public education workers, pedagogical collectives, and Komsomol organizations must jointly carry out these recommendations.

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DEMOGRAPHY

COMMENTS ON USSR DEMOGRAPHIC SITUATION, LIVING STANDARD

Riga SOVETSKAYA LATVIYA in Russian 22 Aug 82 p 2

[Article by Lev Bobrov (APN): "There Are 270 Million of Us"]

[Text] In July 1982 the population of our country passed the 270-million mark. We should recall that it reached 250 million in 1973. Apparently, there will be 300 million of us by the beginning of the 21st century. Of course, sooner or later our population will cease to grow and will stabilize at around 400 million, probably by the year 2075. But only its quantitative growth will cease. What about its qualitative growth? It will continue, and this improvement will know no bounds, according to Professor Dmitriy Valentey, head of the Center for the Study of Population (Moscow University), where the process of this development is being studied.

The 'Quality of Life' Is Improving

What does the term "quality of life" mean? Experts from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have worked out an entire system of indicators to define this term more precisely, grouping them according to eight categories in the following order: 1) health, 2) education and individual development, 3) employment, and so forth. It is easy to see that the Soviet society is improving in terms of all the points on this scale as a result of the constant growth of direct "investments in the individual"--expenditures on public health, education and other sociocultural spheres. Here are some of the results.

The average lifespan in the Soviet nation has increased more quickly than anywhere else and has reached 70 years, which is more than two and a half times as great as the indicator for Russia in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Of course, this is far from the maximum. For example, in Sweden, which has not fought any wars since the 1810's, this indicator is higher, but it has been noticeably higher there for a long time: 50 years in comparison to 32 in Russia at the beginning of the 20th century.

The severe consequences of the economic and demographic upheavals resulting from wars are still affecting our country. For example, it lost more than 10 percent of its population (more than 20 million people) and almost 30 percent of its

national wealth in the Great Patriotic War. The survivors of this war are still dying early from the wounds, stress, hunger and cold they suffered in this war.

We have many problems, but they are being solved reliably in spite of all difficulties. The main objective of Soviet public health care is the better treatment and prevention of cardiovascular diseases, which are still the main cause of death. A service is being set up in our country which does not exist anywhere else in the world--a unified cardiological aid system. Already, 80 percent of all heart attack victims are returning to their life and their jobs. There has also been increasing success in the struggle against the "number 2 killer": The mortality rate from malignant tumors has stabilized in our country and has even decreased for some types. We have a unified system of oncological aid. Everyone knows about the achievements of Soviet therapy and surgery, as well as preventive care and sanatorium treatment.

Experts believe that the hope of increasing the average lifespan of Soviet people to 80 years by the beginning of the 21st century is quite realistic.

The Development of the Population in All Sociocultural Spheres

Possibilities for the thorough development of the individual, self-realization and self-improvement in various spheres of activity are of tremendous significance for each person. What are the results and prospects in this area?

The population of our country is changing qualitatively more quickly than quantitatively. For example, 85 percent of all the people employed in the Soviet national economy now have a higher or secondary (including partial) education as compared to 12 percent in 1939. Soon the figure will be 100 percent. Let us compare the people who entered the labor force during the 10th Five-Year Plan with the people who retired during the same years of 1976-1980. Whereas 47 percent of the latter had only an elementary education, 90 percent of the former had a complete secondary education (10 years).

A secondary education became compulsory for our country's youth in the 1970's. Workers with this kind of education master new techniques almost twice as quickly and are much more likely to become efficiency experts than those with only 6 or 7 years of education. The workers who acquire a skill category in addition to a diploma in their 10 years of school are even more successful. This double asset can now be acquired in secondary vocational and technical institutes, the graduates of which should increase to a million people a year during the current five-year plan.

There are no longer any people with only an elementary education among the new replacements for veterans. And some day even a higher education will be universal. It is already necessary to many workers today--for example, the adjusters of automatic units and control and measurement devices.

Both the individual and the state have an interest in the improvement of skills and the elevation of professional standards and the overall cultural level.

Our country's intellectual potential is still growing. And what about the productivity and creative output of workers? Judge for yourselves: The number of

applications submitted for inventions and other improvements in 1981 was almost 10 times as high as in 1940. And the savings resulting from their use is now around 80 times as great--reaching 7 billion rubles a year. There are many such examples. They testify that although the system of free education for everyone in the USSR costs society a great deal, it is still highly profitable in the economic and the social sense; its generous financing is recouped a hundredfold.

Security

We repeat and emphasize: Our country is facing many problems. But whatever they may be, the Soviet people can feel secure.

The closely interrelated right to education and right to work, as recorded in the Constitution of the USSR, are secured legally and concretely. These guarantees are reinforced by social progress.

In a statement made shortly before the draft of the new constitution was submitted to the public for nationwide discussion, General Secretary of the CPSU Central Committee and Chairman of the USSR Supreme Soviet Presidium L. I. Brezhnev had every reason to say:

"Now each Soviet person can be confident that he will never be unemployed, that he will receive the necessary education, that he will be able to use his gifts and talents, that he will not be left to the mercy of fate if he should fall ill, that he will have security in his old age and that he will not have to worry about his children's future. This seems like quite a lot, but this is not all that we have achieved, not to mention all that we want to achieve."

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CSO: 1828/10

GENERAL

IMPROVED LIVING STANDARDS LEAD TO INSURANCE GROWTH

Moscow FINANSY SSSR in Russian No 11, Nov 82 pp 65-68

[Article by E. F. Dyuzhikov, junior scientific associate, Scientific Research Institute for Finance: "The Growth of Prosperity as the Basis of the Development of Insurance in the USSR"]

[Text] Raising the material and cultural standard of living enjoyed by the Soviet people is one of the chief prerequisites for the development of the state system to insure persons within our nation, and in particular to insure personal property. The growth of monetary income creates favorable conditions for that of insurance since the insurable property of the population is thereby increased; likewise, uncommitted financial means then exist, on the basis of which an insurance agreement may be concluded.

In the 1970's, a broad program was carried out in the country to raise the Soviet people's living standard. In particular, there were increases in the minimum wage and in the rates and scales for the pay of workers and employees who received average earnings. Only in the 10th Five-Year Plan were such major social measures as an increase in tariff rates and salary scales for workers in nonindustrial branches; as a result, the pay of 31 million persons was increased. The average monthly income in 1980 was 168.5 rubles, nearly 1.4 times greater than the figure for 1970. The earned income of kolkhoz workers grew at still faster rates, increasing by 55%.

With the growth of the population's monetary income, there has been enhancement of the real possibilities, not only that current needs (food, clothing and shoe purchases, cultural and social life and daily needs) will be more fully satisfied, but also that the achieved living standard will be assured through state insurance. The relation is a direct one: the greater the amount of income allotted according to accomplished work, the greater the financial means that a family can apportion to the insuring of its property.

However, it is not only the distribution of income according to labor that creates conditions in which insurance activities can develop. The social funds for

consumption, directed at more complete satisfaction of the Soviet people's needs, likewise represent an important influence. In the past 10 years, these funds have grown from 63.9 billion R in 1970 to 116.5 billion R in 1980, i.e. have increased by 82%. The per capita payments and awards rose from 263 to 438 R. This, in turn, affected the rise in the population's monetary income. Thus, with the growth of the social consumption funds in the budget of Soviet families, the monetary income available for existing needs increases as does that which may be used to satisfy future needs, including insurance.

Real income per capita grew in the 1970's by 46%. At the end of the 10th Five-Year Plan, about half the population had a per-family member income above 100 R/month, compared to 18% of the population in 1970. In recent years, the real income of kolkhoz workers rose more rapidly than that of other workers and employees, as a result of the accelerated growth in the kolkhoz workers' earned income. The per-family member real income of kolkhoz workers as a percentage of other workers' and employees' real income rose from 75% in 1965 to 89% in 1980.

Every year, on the basis on the growth of the population's monetary income, there is an increase in the property of our people as a whole, to which the rights of personal property entitle them. The makeup of Soviet citizens' personal property has undergone qualitative as well as quantitative changes. There have been considerable expenditures for the purchase of nonfood items and especially of those for long-term use. If in 1970 the purchase of articles designated for cultural and daily life was the equivalent of 5.8% of the combined income of a working family, it was 7.2% in 1980, and the percentages for the family of a kolkhoz worker were 4.9 and 6.7% respectively. This was made possible by a considerable increase in the production of such goods. In the 10th Five-Year Plan, then, the output of consumer goods as a whole rose by 21%, whereas the increase for those designated for cultural and daily life and household maintenance was 41%.

In 1980, by comparison with 1970, the sale of electric vacuum cleaners rose to 2.4 times the previous value; that of furniture--to twice the previous value, cameras to 1.7 times the previous value, timepieces of all kinds to 1.4 times the previous value and refrigerators to 1.3 times the previous value. During the 9th and 10th Five-Year Plans, as a whole, the population was sold 64 million radios and radio-phonographs, 63 million television sets, 48 million refrigerators, 33 million washing machines and furniture whose value amounted to 43 billion R.¹ The rapid rates of growth in sales of articles for long-term use and a relatively high level at which they are supplied to the population create favorable conditions for the development of voluntary insurance of household property.

1. Calculations after the compendium "Narodnoye khozyaystvo SSSR v 1975 i 1980 gg." [The USSR Economy. 1975 and 1980]

The extensive growth of home building is an important factor in the expansion of insurance activities of a given type. The increase of new households will lead to heightened demand for furniture and other goods for long-term use in creating comfort. Besides, the distribution of new living quarters provided by the state, as a rule, on the principle of making a separate apartment available to a family, will lead to a wider insurance field, i.e. a larger number of families that can be insured. In 10 years, there has been improvement in living conditions for over 107 million persons. Now about 80% of the urban population lives in a separate apartment.

The improved opportunities that arose in the years 1970-1980 were taken advantage of by the agencies of the Main Administration for State Insurance (Gosstrakh), to a considerable degree. The number of insurance agreements covering personal property went from 10 million valid agreements in 1970 to 25 million in 1980 and the insurance coverage, from 16.8 to 33.4%. The sum against which the household property of citizens was insured has tripled to 63 billion R.

It must not be forgotten that part of the fund for dwelling of our country is located in the citizens' personal property. The farm population, as a rule, lives in privately-owned houses. And in cities, there are quite a few dwellings that belong to citizens by right of personal property which are the object of property insurance.

In the 1970's, on the basis of the population's own means and using credit from the state, dwellings with more than 120 million square meters of total actual living space were built. Such a sizable growth of individual home construction created favorable conditions for the development of construction-insurance activities (homes, buildings for economic use). The value of insurance coverage has increased in ten years from 30 to 48 billion R and the value of payments made has gone from 212 million R in 1970 to 343 million R in 1980; i.e. it has increased to 1.6 times the previous amount. At present, more than 36 million citizens' households are covered by compulsory insurance. Agreements for voluntary insurance account for coverage of an additional 15 million insured persons.

Recent years have seen the development of another form of property insurance--voluntary insurance for means of transport, made possible by the growth in output and sales to the population of automobiles and other means of transportation. In the 1970's, about 9 million automobiles and more than 10 million motorcycles and motor-scooters were sold. As a result, the field for insurance underwriting of motor vehicles widened appreciably. In these years the value of insurance grew from 230 million R to 7 billion R, i.e. more than to 30 times the previous amount. The total of insurance payments increased from 3 to 108 million R, to 36 times the previous figure, while the number of agreements in force rose to 10 times the previous value. At present more than 30% of automobile owners make use of Gosstrakh's services.

The private farm plot occupies an important position in the structure of citizens' personal property. It is an important basis for the formation of the population's income, especially in rural areas. The nominal income of the population from

private farming is about 10% of the aggregate income, while it represents a higher proportion--about 25.3%--of the kolkhoz family's budget.* Personal private plots play an essential role in the raising of agricultural products, especially those of animal husbandry. In 1980, 31% of the nation's meat production, 30% of its milk, 32% of its eggs and 21% of its wool fell to the share of such plots.**

The Communist Party and the Soviet government support in every way the citizens' effort to establish private plots. In the 1970's, sales of immature livestock and poultry increased to 1.7 times the previous value and citizens' farms, at the present time, have 23 million head of large, horned livestock, 14 million hogs and 30 million sheep and goats, which makes up one fifth of the total population of these animals.

Important among the measures taken to develop private plots is the insurance of farm animals. Its conditions presuppose a broad responsibility of the Gosstrakh agencies, even though the rates for insurance payments are low. In paying out compensation for animals that die, the insurance agencies give substantial financial aid to citizens and create the necessary preconditions for restoration of stock that has been lost as a result of accident. Owing to this, there has been substantial growth in activities connected with insuring farm animals. The amount of insurance of this type grew from 3.9 billion R in 1970 to 6 billion R in 1980, or to 1.5 times the previous amount. At present, 43 million head of livestock on personal private plots are covered by compulsory insurance, with around 20 million covered by voluntary insurance.

Thus, continual growth of the nation's prosperity and the more complete satisfaction of the people's material and cultural needs are a basis for the rapid increase in property insurance. The growth of material well-being and the development of insurance activities are interrelated and exert an influence on one another. Having grown from the roots of the material position which the workers have achieved, the state insurance system is making it a goal to insure this level against different types of accidental and unforeseen events. In a given case, insurance, as it were, prevents the deterioration of material prosperity, which may occur when property is lost or damaged. Compensation is paid by the insurance system to replace losses and it allows the insured person's material position to be restored.

In the past 10 years, over 2.2 billion R were paid out in all types of property insurance nationally. In voluntary insurance alone, compensation was paid for the losses of more than 1 million automobile owners, 700,000 owners of buildings and 650,000 families who insured household property. Considerable aid was also rendered to citizens owning personal private plots. It is important to mention

* "Narodnoye khozyaystvo SSSR v 1980 g." [The USSR Economy. 1980], p 385.

** Calculation after the compendium "Narodnoye khozyaystvo SSSR v 1980 g." [The USSR Economy. 1980], p 247.

that not only the number of insurance compensation cases has grown, but also their magnitude. In 1980, then, payments based on one agreement increased compared to 1970: in voluntary insurance of household goods by 147 R, in insurance by 71 R; payments for means of transport increased by 50 R.

The data cited are evidence for the fact that state insurance, which has developed on the foundation of the growth of material prosperity, is at the same time one of the measures directed at the continual improvement of the Soviet people's living standard.

In the 11th Five-Year Plan, a new growth of the economy is planned, as well as an increase in the efficiency of social production, which assures the further improvement of the nation's well-being. It is intended that earned income, the primary source of the population's income, will rise. The average monthly wage will grow by 13-16% from 1981 to 1985, reaching 190-195 R. The earned income of kolkhoz workers will increase by 20-22%. When income from personal private plots is taken into account, the earnings of kolkhoz workers will approximate those of other workers and employees.

A wide range of measures is intended to be carried out on the basis of the social funds for consumption. They will increase by 20% to reach 138 billion R in 1985. Per capita payments and awards will be 497 R at the end of the Five-Year Plan.

A special place among measures directed at raising the workers' standard of living is the more complete satisfaction of the population's demand for various goods and services. For this reason, accelerated production growth of the group B branches, by comparison with that in group A branches is planned in the 11th Five-Year Plan. The output of the products of light industry will grow by 18-20%; that of articles for cultural purposes and daily and household use will grow by 40% and constitute a 61 billion R production figure in 1985.

Thanks to the growth of monetary income within the population and the increased production of consumer goods, the volume of retail trade will grow. In the current Five-Year Plan, the turnover of goods in state and cooperative trade will increase by 22-25%.

Dwellings will be built on a large scale. Living space in the area of 530-540 mil. square meters is intended in the next five years. Given this and rapid rates of state-organized construction, heightened individual home building is planned, especially in rural areas.

Personal private plots ought to experience wide growth in the next ten-year period. This is related to the important part that they are intended to play in implementing the food program adopted by the 26th CPSU Congress.

The growth of consumer-products output, the expansion of individual home construction and creation of conditions to increase holdings of livestock on personal private plots open up great opportunities for the development of state property insurance in the 1980's.

These opportunities can be realized only if the valid forms of insurance are continually improved and new ones introduced. It is essential, in our opinion, to create the possibility for workers to have more choice in the type of insurance which they will purchase. Examples are allowing the insured person to choose the extent of coverage or including in the inventory of insured items those that are not covered at present.

Further growth in the insurance field can be promoted, services to the insured party can be improved and the expense of insurance activities can be reduced if combination forms of insurance are introduced. In combination insurance, one agreement may serve to insure, not one type of property as at present, but several. Besides this, it will be possible to join property insurance and accident insurance in one agreement. To introduce insurance for the civic responsibility of individual motor vehicle owners will have an appreciable influence on the development of insurance activities. This form of insurance becomes more and more timely with the growing trend toward automobile ownership.

On the basis of calculations of our country's population and the magnitude of workers' and employees' long-term average monthly pay and based also on an analysis of the growth dynamics of the objects of insurance and rates of insurance activities, a prognosis for citizens' property insurance for 1981-1990 has been developed. The population's property insurance, as is well-known, has both compulsory and voluntary forms, which are essentially different from one another. For example, compulsory insurance brings full coverage of all objects stipulated by law, whereas the development of voluntary insurance entails the choice of one object or another to be underwritten. The level of coverage by compulsory insurance is standardized, whereas it depends on the wish of the insured person in voluntary insurance, limits being set by the value of the underwritten property.

In view of these and other differences, separate prognoses had to be made for compulsory and voluntary forms in forecasting the development of citizens' property insurance. Moreover, there are different objects and limits in coverage for the two forms. Methods for determining the magnitude of the coverage figure and the tariff rates also differ. Likewise, there are distinct variations created by different forms of property, where developmental tendencies are concerned. Each of these was treated separately in establishing the prognosis for insurance activities and if necessary there was differentiation between compulsory and voluntary insurance.

The growth in the number of insured persons and in the amounts paid in will lead to a corresponding increase in compensation payments by the insurance system for lost and **damaged** property. Thus, it may be concluded that the 1980's will bring an increased role of the state system for insuring the citizens' property, based on a raised level of material prosperity within the population and assuring the stability of the Soviet people's standard of living.

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